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HIGH SCHOOL

GRAMMAR,

OR,

AN EXPOSITION

OF THE

GRAMMATICAL STRUCTURE

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

BY

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"PRACTICAL EXERCISES IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION," ETC., ETC.,

"TRUTH AND SIMPLICITY ARE TWIN SISTERS."

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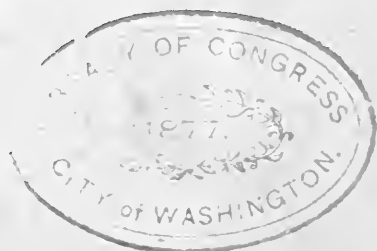
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PREFACE.

THE favorable reception extended to the author's "Intermediate Grammar," and the many solicitations of distinguished teachers and professors have induced him to present it in a more enlarged and complete form. His object has been to furnish students in the higher institutions of learning, with a general view of the leading features of English Philology, and to place in their hands a work that may prove not only a useful auxiliary throughout their Academic and Collegiate course, but a hand-book of reference for after life.

Special attention has also been given to the wants of teachers. In the ordinary routine of instruction even in "common schools," questions arise in their own minds, or are proposed by their pupils in regard to idiomatic forms, or some peculiarity of structure, which have scarcely been noticed, or are entirely passed over in the text-book of the class. Deficiencies of this kind have been anticipated, and such assistance afforded as may the more thoroughly qualify them*for the successful discharge of the important duty in which they are engaged.

In the preparation of this work, the author, in addition to his own practical investigations, has freely consulted the older grammarians, such as Wallis, Harris, Lowth, Greenwood, &c., &c., as well as the best of the modern, such as Murray, Crombie, Latham, Webster, Brown, &c., &c. He would also acknowledge his indebtedness to Bopp, Becker, Kühner, and the valuable grammar of Andrews and Stoddard, recently revised by E. A. Andrews, for many hints in regard to the philosophy and method of language. In a word, he has availed himself of all the materials within his reach, when they aided in the development of his plans.

GRAMMAR.

§ 1. GRAMMAR is the science of Language.

§ 2. It is divided into two parts, Theoretical and Practical.

§ 3. Theoretical Grammar treats of the principles common to all languages. Practical Grammar treats of the principles of a particular language.

§ 4. Language is a medium for the communication of thought. It is divided into Spoken and Written.

§ 5. Spoken language is the utterance of significant sounds to express thought. Written language is a system of characters or letters to represent spoken language.

REMARK.—In regard to the origin of language there has been much diversity of opinion. One class maintained that it was the pure gift of God, the second that it was the invention of man, and others again that it was neither the pure gift of God, nor the invention of man, but the result of his organization.

Cicero, in alluding to the human race in primeval ages, says: "There was a time when men wandered everywhere through the fields after the manner of beasts, and supported life by eating the food of beasts." Diodorus, Lucretius, Horace, Pliny, Juvenal, and other ancient writers, favored

the same opinion, and supposed that it was only after a long and gradual improvement, that men attained their present enlightened state.

Whether language was the pure gift of God, conveyed in vocal sounds to the listening ear, as from the teacher to the pupil, or the development of some pre-existing type in man, are questions that have never been satisfactorily settled. The opinion expressed by Baron Humboldt, is consistent and certainly not far from the truth: "Speech must be regarded as naturally inherent in man, for it is altogether inexplicable as a work of his understanding in its simple consciousness. We are none the better for allowing thousands and thousands of years for the invention of language, unless its type already existed in the human understanding. Man is only man by the means of speech; but in order to invent speech he must be already man."

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

§ 6. ENGLISH GRAMMAR teaches the principles of the English Language.

These relate :

1. To its Written Characters ;
2. To its Pronunciation ;
3. To the Classification and Derivation of its Words ;
4. To the Construction of Sentences ;
5. To Versification. —

REMARK.—The grammar of a particular language, is a system of general principles derived from the natural distinction of words, and particular rules deduced from the customary forms of speech in the nation using that language. These usages are mostly arbitrary, or of accidental origin, but when they become common, they are to be considered as established, and received as rules of highest authority.

§ 7. The first part is called Orthography; the second, Orthoëpy; the third, Etymology; the fourth, Syntax; and the fifth, Prosody.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

§ 8. Orthography treats of the letters and other characters of a language, and the proper method of spelling words.

LETTERS.

§ 9. A Letter is a character used to represent an articulate sound.

§ 10. An articulate sound is the sound of the human voice formed by the organs of speech.

§ 11. The sound of a letter is commonly called its power. When any letter or word is not sounded, it is said to be silent or mute.

§ 12. There are twenty-six letters in the English alphabet. A knowledge of the alphabet consists in an acquaintance with the forms, names, classes, and powers of the letters.

§ 13. The letters of the alphabet are of various shapes and sizes, but are always the same, because their essential properties do not change. Their names, classes, and powers are mostly permanent.

The following are some of the different styles of letters :

1. The Roman: A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.

2. The Italic: *A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.*

3. The Script: *A, a; B, b; C, c; D, d; E, e; F, f; G, g; H, h; I, i; J, j; K, k; L, l; M, m; N, n; O, o; P, p; Q, q; R, r; S, s; T, t; U, u; V, v; W, w; X, x; Y, y; Z, z.*

4. The Old English : A, a ; B, b ; C, c ; D, d ; E, e ; F, f ; G, g ; H, h ; I, i ; J, j ; K, k ; L, l ; M, m ; N, n ; O, o ; P, p ; Q, q ; R, r ; S, s ; T, t ; U, u ; V, v ; W, w ; X, x ; Y, y ; Z, z.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The inquiry concerning the origin of letters has given rise to a variety of opinions, and many of them vague and unsatisfactory ; for on this point the learned are by no means agreed. Some writers have attributed their invention to different people. Thoth, or Mercury, is said to have invented and taught the Egyptians how to use them. Others again give the honor of the invention to the Assyrians, Phoenicians, &c., &c. Some think they were perfectly known before the confusion of tongues, and imagine them to have been in common use in the antediluvian world, and that Noah and his family brought them into the new world, in which they have been continued through a great variety of successive changes, until the present time. Some attribute the invention to Moses, others to Abraham, others to Abel, and some to Adam. The Jewish rabbis say, "The Almighty formed them on the evening of the first Sabbath," and Pliny seems to have thought them eternal. These different opinions seem to show the uncertainty of the subject ; there can be no limit to conjecture, when all direct evidence is wanting. That there were various symbols and figures used in all ages of the world to represent the objects of sense, even before a regular written language was necessary, may be readily believed ; but we have no certain account of the existence or use of alphabetical characters previous to the day of Moses, nor of any thing written in such characters prior to the giving of the law on Mount Sinai, 2512 years from the foundation of the world, and 856 after the universal deluge. After the dispersion of mankind in the time of Peleg, writing became necessary, not only because of this dispersion, but because the life of man was so much abridged ; consequently traditions must become less certain, as the facts had to be related to a multitude of persons ; hence alphabetical characters became necessary, because without them the records of the world must soon have been obliterated from the swiftly succeeding generations of men. There is no positive evidence that there was any writing before the declaration of the law on Mount Sinai ; and then the Almighty is said to have written the Decalogue with his own finger.

The Greek alphabet had its origin from the Phœnician. The Romans derived the most of their capitals from the Greeks, but the small letters, if they had any, were made by themselves. The Italic letters were invented towards the close of the fifteenth century. The Saxon alphabet was mostly Roman, nearly all their letters belonging to that class. Under William the Conqueror this was superseded by the Old English, which in its turn gave place to the Roman.

REMARK 2.—A letter consists not only in figure or power, but in their union. The name is necessary to distinguish it, and the power to determine the class to which it belongs.

REMARK 3.—The marks used for punctuation are not letters—they indicate silence, not sound. Numerals do not come under the class of letters, as they do not represent sounds, but entire words.

POWERS OF LETTERS.

§ 14. In the analysis of words it is necessary to distinguish between the name and power of letters.

§ 15. The elementary powers or sounds of the English language are about forty. They are divided into Vocals, Subvocal, and Aspirates.

§ 16. A Vocal consists of pure voice only; e. g., *A, e, o.*

§ 17. A Subvocal consists of the voice and breath united; e. g., *B, d, g.*

§ 18. Aspirates consist of pure breath only; e. g., *F, h, k.*

§ 19. Vocals are subdivided into *long* and *short*.

§ 20. A long sound is one that can be protracted at pleasure; e. g., *May* — *ay*; *bee* — *ee*.

§ 21. A short sound is one formed by the same position of the organs, but uttered with an explosive effort; e. g., *Hat*, *pen*, *pin*.

A TABLE OF THE ELEMENTARY SOUNDS
IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

VOCALS.	SUBVOCALS.	ASPIRATES.
A. <i>ale, able.</i>	B. <i>but, orb.</i>	F. <i>fix.</i>
A. <i>art.</i>	D. <i>do, ded.</i>	H. <i>hat.</i>
A. <i>all.</i>	G. <i>gone, dog.</i>	K. <i>keep, book.</i>
A. <i>at.</i>	J. <i>judge.</i>	P. <i>pen, top.</i>
E. <i>me.</i>	L. <i>lee.</i>	S. <i>sun.</i>
E. <i>met.</i>	M. <i>man.</i>	T. <i>top, but.</i>
I. <i>ire.</i>	N. <i>no.</i>	Th. <i>faith.</i>
I. <i>in.</i>	Ng. <i>ring.</i>	Sh. <i>show.</i>
O. <i>old.</i>	R. <i>rope, far.</i>	Ch. <i>chide.</i>
O. <i>more, ooze.</i>	Th. <i>this.</i>	Wh. <i>when.</i>
O. <i>odd.</i>	V. <i>van.</i>	
U. <i>tune, use.</i>	W. <i>we.</i>	
U. <i>up.</i>	Y. <i>yes.</i>	
U. <i>full.</i>	Z. <i>zinc.</i>	
Ou. <i>thou.</i>	Z. <i>azure.</i>	

REMARK.—The name of a vowel is always one of its powers (except *w* and *y*), and if from the name of the consonant we take away the vowel sound, what remains is generally the power of that consonant (*w* and *y* excepted).

§ 22. Certain letters in the English alphabet have the same power as others; such are styled *Equivalents*. Of the subvocals and aspirates eight pairs are Correlatives.

TABLE OF EQUIVALENTS AND CORRELATIVES.

EQUIVALENTS.			CORRELATIVES.	
			Subvocals.	Aspirates.
W	= u	cow, mew.	V vow.	F fame.
Y	= i	tyrant.	G gone.	K keep.
C (hard)	= k	cat.	B bat.	P pen.
Q	= k	liquor.	Z zinc.	S sin.
C (soft)	= s	cent.	D do.	T top.
G (soft)	= j	gin.	Th this.	Th thick.
X	= ks	fix.	Z azure.	Sh show.
			J judge.	Ch child.

DIVISION OF LETTERS.

§ 23. Letters are divided into Vowels and Consonants.

§ 24. A Vowel represents a sound perfect without the aid of any other sound.

§ 25. A Consonant represents a sound made in conjunction with a vowel sound.

§ 26. The Vowels are *a, e, i, o, u*, and *w* and *y* when not before a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

§ 27. The Consonants are *b, c, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, q, r, s, t, v, x, z*, and *w* and *y* before a vowel sounded in the same syllable.

CLASSES OF CONSONANTS.

§ 28. Consonants are divided into Mutes and Semivowels.

REMARK.—The Semivowels have an imperfect sound by themselves, but the Mutes cannot be sounded alone.

§ 29. The Mutes are *b, p, d, t, k, v*, and *c* and *g* hard.

REMARK.—*C* is hard when it has the sound of *k* in *cat*, and soft when it is sounded as *s* in *city*. *G* is hard when it is sounded as *g* in *gun*, and soft when as in *gentle*.

§ 30. The Semivowels are *f, h, l, m, n, r, s, v, z*, and *c* and *g* soft.

§ 31. *X* is a double consonant, and is equivalent to *ks*.

§ 32. Four of the semivowels, *l, m, n*, and *r*, are called liquids on account of their smooth flowing sound.

DIPHTHONGS.

§ 33. Two vowels in immediate succession in the same syllable form a Diphthong; e. g., *Ou* in *found*.

§ 34. A Proper Diphthong is one in which both the vowels are sounded; e. g., *Oi* in *oil*.

§ 35. An Improper Diphthong is one in which only one of the vowels is sounded; e. g., *Ea* in *beat*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Diphthongs in English are twenty-nine: *aa, ae, ai, ao, au, aw, ay, —ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey, —ia, ie, (ii) io, (iu, iw, iy)—oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, oy, —ua, ue, ui, uo, (uu, uw) uy*. Ten of these are proper or improper, being variously sounded:—*ay, —ie, oi, ou, ow, —ua, ue, ui, uo, uy*.

REMARK 2.—The Proper Diphthongs are thirteen: *ay, —ia, ie, io, —oi, ou, oy, ow, —ua, ue, ui, uo, uy*.

REMARK 3.—The Improper Diphthongs are twenty-six: *aa, ae, ai, ao, au, ay, aw, —ea, ee, ei, eo, eu, ew, ey, —ie, —oa, oe, oi, oo, ou, ow, —ua, ue, ui, uo, uy*.

TRIPHTHONGS.

§ 36. Three vowels in the same syllable in immediate succession form a Triphthong; e. g., *Eau* in *beauty*.

§ 37. A Proper Triphthong is one in which all the vowels are sounded; e. g., *Uoy* in *buoy*.

§ 38. An Improper Triphthong is one in which all the vowels are not sounded; e. g., *Eau* in *beauty*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The only Proper Triphthong in English is *uoy*, as in *buoy*, *buoyant*, *buoyancy*; unless *uoi* in *quoit* may be considered a parallel.

REMARK 2.—The Improper Triphthongs are sixteen: *awe*, *aye*,—*eau*, *eu*, *ewe*, *eye*,—*ieu*, *iou*,—*oeu*, *owe*,—*uai*, *uaw*, *uay*, *uea*, *uee*.

COMBINATIONS.

§ 39. A Combination is the union of a consonant and vowel in one sound; e. g., *Ci* in *social*.

§ 40. The Combinations are *ee*, *ei*, *si*, *ti*, and *zi*, when they sound like *ch*, *sh*, or *zh*.

DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

§ 41. A Double Consonant is the union of two consonants in one sound; e. g., *Ch* in *church*.

§ 42. The Double Consonants are *ch*, *gh*, *ph*, *sh*, *th*, *uh*, and *ng*. *Nk* is equivalent to *ngk*; e. g., *Think*, *thank*.

APHTHONGS.

§ 43. An Aphthong is a letter or union of letters not sounded; e. g., *Ugh* in *though*.

SYLLABLES.

§ 44. A Syllable is a letter or combination of letters uttered together; e. g., *A*, *a-far*, *con-nect-ed*.

REMARK.—Every word contains as many syllables as it has distinct sounds; e. g., *A-e-ri-al*, *gram-ma-ri-an*.

§ 45. A word of one syllable is called a Monosyllable; e. g., *Boy*, *man*, *house*.

§ 46. A word of two syllables is called a Dissyllable; e. g., *A-far*, *con-nect*.

§ 47. A word of three syllables is called a Trissyllable; e. g., *Con-nect-ed*, *con-so-nant*.

§ 48. A word of more than three syllables is called a Polysyllable; e. g., *Un-con-nect-ed-ly*.

WORDS.

§ 49. Words are articulate sounds used by common consent as the signs of our ideas. In respect to origin, they are either Primitive, Derivative, Simple, or Compound.

§ 50. A Primitive Word is one that is not derived from any other word; e. g., *Boston*, *man*, *good*.

§ 51. A Derivative Word is one derived from some other word; e. g., *Bostonian*, *manful*, *goodness*.

§ 52. A Simple Word is one not compounded with any other word; e. g., *Horse*, *man*.

§ 53. A Compound Word is one compounded of two or more words; e. g., *Horse-man*.

ACCENT.

§ 54. Accent is a stress of voice placed upon a particular syllable to distinguish it from others. Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables accented.

§ 55. Accent is of two kinds: Primary and Secondary.

§ 56. The Primary accent is a full stress of the voice; e. g., *Al'-so*, *de-ny'*.

§ 57. The Secondary accent is a weaker stress of the voice; e. g., *O''-ver-see'*, *lu'mi-na''ry*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—If the full accent falls on a vowel, the sound is prolonged; e. g., *Vo'-cal*. When it falls on a consonant the preceding vowel is shortened; e. g., *Hab'-it*.

REMARK 2.—In separating a word into its syllables, care should be taken to divide it as it is pronounced.

REMARK 3.—In writing a syllable, never divide it at the end of a line.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

§ 58. Derivation is forming words from their roots. This is done by the aid of prefixes and suffixes.

REMARK.—The Anglo-Saxon is the basis of the English language. It contains, however, many words from other languages.

§ 59. The Root is the essential part of a word. A prefix is a part of the derivation before the root.

REMARK.—A prefix often loses a letter, or changes it for the sake of euphony.

§ 60. Prefixes are mostly of Saxon, Latin, and Greek origin.

REMARK.—The roots to which they are prefixed are not always used as distinct words in the English language; the meaning of such may be determined by applying different prefixes. Thus in *impel*, *propel*, *dispel*, *expel*, it is easily seen that the word *pel* means to drive.

PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

All.	Most; wholly; in the highest degree.
After.	Later; latter; following.
Be.	Nearness; adding intensity.
By.	Near; aside.

Fore.	Before ; in front.
Out.	Beyond ; excess.
Over.	Excess ; above.
Up.	Rising ; sustaining.
Under.	Below ; beneath.
With.	Opposing ; retaining.

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A, ab, abs.	From ; away from.
Ad, ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at.	{ To ; towards ; closeness or union.
Ambi.	
Amb, amphi.	Around, or to.
Ante.	Before.
Ant, anti.	Opposite ; against.
Bene.	Good, or well.
Bi, bis.	Two.
Cis.	On this side.
Center, centi, cent.	A hundred.
Contra, contro, counter.	Against, opposition to.
Con, co, cog, com, col, cor.	{ With ; joined with, or together.
Circum.	
De.	From ; depriving of ; down.
Di, dis, dif.	Separating ; out of ; from.
Duo, du.	Two, double.
E, ex, ef, ec.	Out, out of, from, beyond.
En, em.	In, or upon.
Equi.	Equal.
Extra.	Beyond ; more than ; excess.
In, im, ig, il, ar.	{ Not ; with <i>adj.</i> and <i>adv.</i> In ; into ; on ; with <i>verbs.</i>

Inter.	Between; among.
Intro.	Within; into; unto.
Infra.	Under; below.
Juris.	Legal; lawful; right.
Juxta.	Near by; nearness.
Mis.	Wrong; erroneous.
Male, mal.	Ill, evil, bad.
Multi.	Many.
Manu.	A hand.
Non, ne, un.	{ Not; with <i>adj.</i> and <i>adv.</i> Undoing; with <i>verbs</i> .
Noct.	Night.
Ob, oc, of, op.	{ In front; against; toward; in, <i>or</i> on.
Omni, panto, pan.	All.
Pleni.	Full.
Preter.	Beyond; past; more than.
Post.	After.
Pro.	Before; forward; to surpass.
Per.	Through; by; very; over.
Primo, prim.	First; original.
Quad, tetra.	Four.
Re.	Again, back, return.
Retro.	Backward, back.
Se.	Separation, withdrawal.
Super, supra, sur.	Over and above; beyond.
Sex.	Six.
Soli, moni.	One; alone.
Semi, demi, hemi.	Half.
Sub, subter, sul, suf, sug, sup, sus.	{ Under, below, after.
Sine.	Without.

Trans, ultra.	Across, beyond, change.
Tri.	Threc.
Uni.	One.

PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN.

A.	Privation, destitute of, without.
Ana.	Again, against, back.
Arch (arche).	Chief; beginning.
Astro (astron).	A star.
Auto (autos).	One's self.
Apo, aph.	From.
Aristo (aristos).	The best, <i>viz.</i> , noble, or nobles.
Bio (bios).	Life.
Biblio (biblion).	A book.
Cata.	Against; down.
Choro (choros).	A place, or country.
Chiro (cheir).	A hand.
Chrono (chronos).	Time.
Cosmo (cosmos).	The world.
Dia.	Through.
Dys.	Bad; difficult.
Deca, dec (deka).	Ten.
Eu.	Good; well; praise.
Epi.	In; on; upon.
Entomo (entoma).	An insect.
Geo (ge).	The earth.
Homo (homos).	Like; similar.
Hetero (heteros).	Unlike; dissimilar.
Hepta (Latin septem).	Seven.
Helio (helios).	The sun.
Hydro (hudor).	Water.
Hyper (huper).	Over, excess, beyond.

Hypo (hupo).	Under.
Ichthys (ichthus).	A fish.
Lexico (lexikon).	A dictionary.
Litho (lithos).	A stone.
Meta.	Change, beyond.
Mytho (muthos).	A fable.
Miso; mis (misos).	Hatred.
Osteo (osteon).	A bone.
Ortho (orthos).	Right; correct.
Ornitho (ornithos).	A bird; a fowl.
Octo, octa, oct (okto).	Eight.
Para.	Contrary, beyond.
Proto (protos).	First, chief.
Penta (pente).	Five.
Physico, physis (phusis).	Nature; natural.
Pyro (pur).	Fire.
Poly (polas).	Many.
Philo, phil (philos).	Friend; love, lover.
Peri.	Around; near.
Syn, syl, sym, sy (sun).	With; together with.
Steno (stenos).	Narrow; brief; short.
Stereo (stereos).	Solid; firm.
Topo (topos).	A place.
Theo (theos).	God.
Typo (tupos).	Type.
Zoö (zóon).	An animal; a beast.

SUFFIXES.

§ 61. A Suffix is the part of a derivative after the root. In adding suffixes, the final letter of the root is often *doubled*, *dropped*, or *changed*. Such changes are made according to the following rules:

RULE I. Verbs of one syllable, ending with a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, and verbs of more than one syllable ending in the same manner, and accented on the last syllable, double the final consonant on receiving an additional syllable; e. g., *Regret, regretted*; *dig, digging*.

REMARK.—Most words ending in *l*, though not accented on the syllable, double the *l* on receiving an additional syllable; e. g., *Travel, travelled*; *model, modelled*.

RULE II. In words ending in *y*, preceded by a single consonant, the *y* is changed into *i* before an additional syllable; e. g., *Merry, merrier*; *pity, pitied*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Before *ing*, *y* is retained to prevent the doubling of *i*; e. g., *Marry, marrying*. Words in *ie* drop *e* and take *y*; e. g., *Die, dying*. To prevent ambiguity, the verb *to dye*, and some others, retain *e* before *ing*.

RULE III. Words ending in silent *e* before an additional syllable beginning with a vowel, generally omit the *e*; e. g., *Force, forcible*; *rave, raving*.

EXCEPTION 1.—Words ending in *a* or *ge* retain the *a* before *able, ous*; e. g., *Peace, peaceable*; *outrage, outrageous*.

EXCEPTION 2.—Words ending in *oe* retain the final *e*; e. g., *Shoe, shoeing*.

EXCEPTION 3.—Words ending in *ee* drop the final *e* on receiving an additional syllable beginning with *e*; e. g., *See, seest*; *agree, agreed*.

RULE IV. Double *l* generally becomes single before an additional consonant; e. g., *Skill, skilful*.

REMARK.—Words in any other double letter preserve it double before the terminations *ful, ly, ness, less*.

RULE V. Compound words formed by prefixing a word or syllable to a monosyllable ending in *all*, retain the *ll*; e. g., *Befall, bethrall*.

REMARK.—*Withal, therewithal, and wherewithal* are exceptions to this rule.

SYNOPSIS OF THE SUFFIXES.

Able, ible.	{ That may be ; can be ; capable of being.
Ability, ibility.	{ The property, or quality capable of being ; the state, or susceptibility of being :
Ableness, ibleness.	
Ant, ent.	The person who, or thing which.
Ance, ancy, ion, ence, ency, ment.	{ The act of ; the state ; the state of being, <i>or</i> the thing.
Ac, ic, al, ary.	{ Pertaining to ; belonging to ; relating to ; consisting of.
Dom, ric.	Jurisdiction ; possession.
En.	Made of ; consisting of.
Ful, ose.	Full of ; abounding with.
Hood, ship.	State, office, quality.
Ize, fy, fit, fic, ferous.	To make <i>or</i> become.
Ity, cy.	The state of being ; quality ; power.
Ish, ly.	Like ; similar to ; somewhat.
Ive.	Tending to ; relating to ; power of.
Ics, ism.	The science ; art of ; doctrine ; state.
Ile.	Pertaining to ; easily.
Less.	Without ; destitute of.
Ness.	The abstract quality <i>or</i> state.
Ous.	Containing ; partaking of ; full of.
Ory.	Containing ; tending to ; place.
Ast, er, ess, ee, err, ian, ist, ite, ix, <i>or</i> res, san, zen.	{ Commonly imply the person or thing.
Some.	
Ar, ard, ado, ster, oso, ati.	{ Sometimes denote a person.
Kin, et, ling, let, ule.	Little <i>or</i> young.

GRAMMATICAL SUFFIXES.

S, es.	More than one ; e. g., <i>Boys, foxes.</i>
Er.	More ; e. g., <i>Wiser.</i>
Est.	Most ; e. g., <i>Wisest.</i>
S, es.	Does ; e. g., <i>Kills.</i>
Est.	Dost ; e. g., <i>Wishest.</i>
Ed.	Did ; e. g., <i>Killed.</i>
Ing.	Continuing to ; e. g., <i>Acting.</i>

REMARKS.—The prefixes and suffixes of our language are less than 200, and nearly uniform in their signification. These being thoroughly learned, our vocabulary, consisting of over 100,000 words, is compressed within the limits of about 10,000 roots or primitives. These include the *Saxon, Gothic, Celtic, Latin, Greek*, and other radicals of the language. More than 30,000 English words derived from Latin and Greek are formed or built up, by means of these prefixes and suffixes, from less than 2000 radical words; 13,000 of them from about 200; and 2,400 from only 12 roots. The root *facio* (to make *or* do) enters into more than 500 English words, upon which it impresses literally its own signification. These facts, and the ease with which the prefixes and suffixes can be mastered, are sufficient to induce the pupil to commit them thoroughly. This being done, and knowing that *tract*, from the Latin *traho*, means to draw, the pupil at once knows the meaning of 210, as they occur, formed from this root. Thus *abstract*, to draw from; *extract*, to draw out; *attract*, to draw to; *contract*, to draw together; *retract*, to draw back; *subtract*, to draw under or from; *distract*, to draw asunder, &c., &c.

CAPITALS.

§ 62. Formerly every noun began with a capital letter, both in writing and printing. At present only the following words begin with capitals.

1.—The first word of every distinct sentence ; e. g., “*Falsehood is a most odious vice.*”

2.—Proper names and titles of honor or office should begin with a capital; e. g., *Miss J. W. Nixon*; *Gen. G. W. Gunn*; *Doct. F. M. Peterson*.

3.—Adjectives derived from proper names; e. g., *American*; *Washingtonian*.

4.—All names of Deity; e. g., *God*; *Jehovah*; the *Almighty*; the *Supreme*.

5.—The name of an object personified, when it conveys an idea strictly individual; e. g., “Come, gentle *Spring*.”

6.—The first word of every line of poetry should begin with a capital; e. g.,

“A mother is a mother still,
The holiest thing alive.”—*Coleridge*.

7.—The first word of a direct quotation, when it forms a complete sentence; e. g., Virgil says, “*Labor conquers all things*.”

8.—The pronoun *I* and exclamation *O*; e. g., “*I* wish to go;” “*O*, blissful days!”

9.—Every noun and principal word in the title of books; e. g., “*Pope’s Essay on Man*.”

10.—Other principal words, when they are of particular importance, may begin with capitals.

ORTHOËPY.

§ 63. Orthoëpy treats of the right pronunciation of words.

REMARK.—Pronunciation is best taught by means of a good spelling-book where the words are arranged according to their analogies, and divided according to their proper sounds. Vocabularies, Dictionaries, and Glossaries are serviceable only to the more advanced. Walker’s Rules for Pronunciation are probably the clearest and best guide before the

public. Mulky's System may be consulted in connection with Walker. Other writers might be named, but of all, Walker is the best.

QUESTIONS.

What is Grammar?

How is it divided?

What is Practical Grammar? Theoretical?

What is Language? How divided?

What is spoken language? Written?

What does English Grammar teach?

To what do they relate?

What is the First Part called?

The Second? The Third? Fourth? Fifth?

What does Orthography treat of?

What is a letter? ———an articulate sound?

What is the sound of a letter called?

When a letter is not sounded, what is it called?

How many letters in the Alphabet?

What is said of the shapes and sizes?

Mention some of the different styles.

What is necessary in the analysis of words?

How many elementary sounds or powers?

How are they divided?

What is a Vocal? Subvocal? Aspirate?

How are Vocals subdivided?

What is a long sound? Short?

How are letters divided?

What does a Vowel represent?

A Consonant?

How are the Consonants divided?

What is a Mute? Semivowel?

What are the Liquids?

What is a Diphthong?

A Proper Diphthong? Improper?

What is a Triphthong? Proper? Improper?

What is a Combination?

What are they?

What is a Double-Consonant? Aphthong?

What is a Syllable?

What are words of one Syllable called?

Two Syllables? Three? More than three?

What are Words?

How divided? What is a Primitive word?

Derivative? Simple? Compound?

What is Accent?

How many kinds are there?

Explain the Primary. Secondary.

What is meant by Derivation of Words?

What is the Root? Prefix?

What is said of their origin?

What is Rule I.? II.? &c.

What is said of the use of Capitals?

What does Orthoëpy treat of?

ETYMOLOGY.

§ 64. Etymology treats of the different classes of words, and their various modifications.

FORM OF WORDS.

§ 65. In respect to form, words are either Declinable or Indclinable.

§ 66. A Declinable word is one that undergoes certain changes of form or termination to express its various relations; e. g., *Man, men; love, loves, loved.*

§ 67. An Indeclinable word undergoes no changes of form.

CLASSIFICATION OF WORDS.

§ 68. Words are divided according to their use, into eight different classes; viz.: Noun, Verb, Adjective, Pronoun, Adverb, Conjunction, and Exclamation.

REMARK.—Words are divided naturally into two classes; Primary and Secondary. Primary words consist of such as are essential to language, on which others depend as auxiliaries. This class includes the Noun and Verb. Secondary words are such as are dependent on others in construction. This class includes Adjectives, Pronouns, Adverbs, Prepositions, and Conjunctions. Exclamations have no grammatical relation to other words.

§ 69. From words are formed Propositions; e. g., “*Girls sing;*” “*boys play.*”

REMARK.—Any combination of words expressing an assertion, question, command, &c.,—or in general, any combination that expresses complete sense is called a proposition.

§ 70. In the construction of propositions, the Noun and Verb are indispensable. All other words, with the exception of the Exclamation, are either appendages or connectives.

§ 71. Every proposition, however simple, consists of two parts; the Subject, or thing spoken

of; and the Predicate, or that which is affirmed of the subject; e. g., "*John reads*;" "*William recited*."


§ 72. The analysis of a proposition consists in separating it into its elements.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Subject and Predicate in the following propositions;—tell how you know them.

MODEL.—"*John reads*," is a proposition, because it contains a subject and predicate. "*John*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks. "*Studies*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*John*."

Horses run. Animals live. Thomas sleeps. Rain falls. Men work. Death comes. Cows low. Dogs bark. Horses neigh. William walks. Susan dances. Stars shine. Birds sing. Lambs skip. Edward has fallen. Lucy will play. William will write. Robert has come. The girls have recited. The ocean roars. Difficulties vanish. Marion conquered. Mother reproves. The bell has rung. Beauty fades. The ball bounds. Powder explodes. Birds fly. Fish swim. Memory decays. The day dawns. Cotton grows. The teacher calls. The slate is broken. Jane is an indolent girl. Martha is meddlesome. The fox is cunning. The lion is bold.

 These exercises should be continued until the learner clearly comprehends what constitutes a proposition, and is able to distinguish the terms that form its essential parts. Impress it on the pupil that nothing is more conducive to a correct knowledge of grammar than analysis. This understood, he will be able to pursue his course with pleasure and profit.

Of what must every proposition consist?

What is the analysis of a proposition?

What is a Noun? Verb? Adjective?

Pronoun? Preposition? Conjunction?

Exclamation?

NOUNS.

§ 81. A Noun is the name of an object; e. g., *Alfred*, *Charleston*, *pencil*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A noun is the name of an object. This definition is equally true, whether the object has a real existence; e. g., *Alfred*, *Charleston*, *pencil*, or is the name of an object that has no real existence independent of it, as *whiteness*, *virtue*, *wisdom*.

REMARK 2.—All words and signs taken technically are nouns, for in such cases they assume the character of nouns, and must be regarded as such; e. g., *I* and *J* were formerly expressed by the same character, as were *U* and *V*. *Us* is a personal pronoun. There are eight *ands* in this sentence. *Good* is an adjective. $+$ is the sign of addition.

REMARK 3.—The word object in the definition of a noun, must be carefully distinguished from the same term used in Syntax to denote the complement of a transitive verb.

REMARK 4.—When a phrase or clause of a sentence is used to denote an object, it becomes a noun; e. g., *To see the sun* is pleasant.

REMARK 5.—The noun is frequently called a substantive. All phrases or clauses used as nouns, are called substantive clauses.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

§ 82. Nouns are divided into two classes, Proper and Common.

§ 83. A Proper Noun is the name of an individual object; e. g., *George, Marion, Vesuvius*.

§ 84. A Common Noun is a name applied to all objects of the same class; e. g., *Boy, hand, mountain*.

§ 85. A Collective Noun, or Noun of Multitude, is the name of many individuals together; e. g., *Army, school, committee*.

§ 86. An Abstract Noun is the name of a particular quality considered apart from its substance; e. g., *Piety, virtue, goodness*.

§ 87. A Verbal Noun is the name of some action, or state of being; e. g., *Reading, writing, sleeping*.

§ 88. A Diminutive Noun is a name derived from another expressing some diminution of the original; e. g., *Stream, streamlet*; leaf, *leaflet*.

§ 89. A Proper Noun with the definition *a* or *the* before it, is used as a common noun; e. g., He was the *Washington* of his age.

§ 90. A Common Noun when personified becomes proper; e. g., *Hail, Liberty*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Whiteness, goodness, haste, confusion, action, existence, &c., are called abstract nouns, because they are the names of qualities abstracted, or considered apart from the objects to which they belong. Thus, honesty does not really exist without being connected with some individual, but the mind abstracts it from individuals and considers it as an object existing by itself; e. g., *Honesty* is the best policy.

REMARK 2.—The names of metals, grain, &c., as iron, gold, wheat, snow, fire, do not denote classes of objects, but the substance of which they are composed. Like abstract nouns they have no plural, and do not admit of *a*, *an*, or *one* before them.

§ 91. To Nouns belong Gender, Person, Number, and Case.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns in the following exercises; tell why they are nouns;—Proper, or Common, and why.

MODEL.—“The horse runs swiftly.” “*Horse*” is a noun because it is a name;—Common, because it is a name applied to all objects of the same class.

“Henry hurt his hand.” “*Henry*” is a noun, because it is a name;—Proper, because it is the name of an individual object.

Washington was the first president. Montgomery is the capital of Alabama. Wisdom is more precious than jewels. Alfred has a little dog called Fido. The battle of Waterloo occurred in June. Proper names should begin with capitals. Walnuts have hard shells, but sweet kernels. The fixed stars are supposed to be suns in other planetary systems. Abridgements of history in most respects are useless. To reason with the angry, is like whispering to the deep. Father went to Mobile in a steamboat. The words commonly called articles are classed with adjectives. Whiteness is the name of a quality. Etymology treats of the classification of words. Neglect no opportunity to do good. In the winter water freezes. Hardness is natural to rocks. The hurricane destroyed the building. Coffee is spelled with two fs and two es.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences, each containing an example of a Proper Noun. Five containing a Common Noun. Five containing a Collective Noun or Noun of Multitude. Five containing an Abstract Noun. Five containing a Verbal Noun. Five con-

taining a Diminutive Noun. Five containing a Proper Noun used as a Common Noun. Five containing an example of an object personified.

GENDER.

§ 92. Gender is the distinction of Nouns with regard to sex.

§ 93. There are three Genders; the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

§ 94. The Masculine Gender denotes the male sex; e. g., *Man, boy, son*.

§ 95. The Feminine Gender denotes the female sex; e. g., *Woman, girl, daughter*.

§ 96. The Neuter Gender denotes objects that are neither male nor female; e. g., *Chair, house, garden*.

§ 97. Animals whose sex is unknown, or unnecessary to be distinguished, are spoken of generally as Neuter; e. g., "James shot at the *deer*, and missed *it*."

§ 98. On the same principle we say of the child, *it* is sick.

§ 99. Some nouns, naturally Neuter, by figure of speech become Masculine or Feminine; e. g., The Sun, *he* is setting; the Moon, *she* is eclipsed.

§ 100. Things that are strong and controlling, are commonly spoken of as Masculine;—beautiful and dependent, Feminine.

§ 101. A collective noun implying unity, or having the plural form, is Neuter; but if it refers to the individuals named,

its gender corresponds; e. g., "The jury could not agree upon *their* verdict."

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Nouns in English, according to the universal rule, have three genders; but unlike most other languages, ancient or modern, the larger part of the words of this description belong to the neuter gender; for none are considered as masculine or feminine without an actual distinction of sex, unless in poetry, or in a very few instances of technical phrases. Even a ship, which is constantly spoken of by seamen as feminine, is neuter in common parlance. From this general rule, however, we must except the Deity, God, and other terms of the same signification, which are constantly masculine. Other nouns, as those of the planets, admit of being made masculine or feminine, because they are named after heathen divinities, as *Jupiter, Juno*; or after distinguished men, *Herschel*. In the case of the *sun* and *moon*, the English differs from its parent language; for the *sun* is feminine, and the *moon* masculine in the German dialects in general, whereas the English in this follows the Greek and Latin, and reverses the gender. In more ornate composition the virtues and the vices are also made masculine and feminine. In some cases nouns may be considered as of either gender; as *fox, goat, &c.*; but animals more commonly spoken of, have different terms for the sexes; as *lion, lioness; stag, hind*.

REMARK 2.—The term "Common Gender," applied to such words as *parent, cousin, friend, &c.*, is incorrect and unnecessary. When the gender of such words can not be determined by the context, in parsing, say gender unknown. This is better than an unphilosophical distinction.

There are three ways of distinguishing sex.

1. By the different words; e. g.,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Bachelor,	Maid.	Brother,	Sister.
Beau,	Belle.	Husband,	Wife.
Boar,	Sow.	King,	Queen.
Boy,	Girl.	Lad,	Lass.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Buck,	Doe.	Lord,	Lady.
Bullock, }	Heifer.	Man,	Woman.
Steer, }		Milter,	Spawner.
Dog,	Bitch.	Nephew,	Niece.
Drake,	Duck.	Ram,	Ewe.
Earl,	Countess.	Master,	Mistress.
Father,	Mother.	Singer, {	Singer, <i>or</i>
Friar,	Nun.		Songstress.
Gander,	Goose.	Sir,	Madam.
Hart,	Roe.	Son,	Daughter.
Horse,	Mare.	Sloven,	Slut.
Cock,	Hen.	Uncle,	Aunt.
Stag,	Hind.	Wizard,	Witch.

2. By the different termination ; e. g.,

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Abbot,	Abbess.	Elector,	Electress.
Actor,	Actress.	Emperor,	Empress.
Administrator,	Administratrix.	God,	Goddess.
Adulterer,	Adulteress.	Governor	Governess.
Author,	Authoress.	Heir,	Heiress.
Baron,	Baroness.	Hero,	Heroine.
Canon,	Canoness.	Host,	Hostess.
Cater,	Cateress.	Hunter,	Huntress.
Chanter,	Chantress.	Inheritor, {	Inheritrix, <i>or</i>
Conductor,	Conductress.		Inheritress.
Count,	Countess.	Jew,	Jewess.
Czar,	Czarina.	Landgrave,	Landgravine.
Deacon,	Deaconess.	Lion,	Lioness.
Detractor,	Detractress.	Marquis,	Marchioness.
Duke,	Duchess.	Mayor,	Mayoress.

Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Patron,	Patroness.	Suitor,	Suitress.
Peer,	Peeress.	Tiger,	Tigress.
Poet,	Poetess.	Testator,	Testatrix.
Priest,	Priestess.	Traitor,	Traitress.
Prince,	Princess.	Tyrant,	Tyranness.
Prophet,	Prophetess.	Tutor,	Tutoress.
Shepherd,	Shepherdess.	Victor,	Victress.
Songster,	Songstress.	Viscount,	Viscountess.
Sorcerer,	Sorceress.	Votary,	Votress.
Sultan,	{ Sultana <i>or</i> Sultaness.	Widower,	Widow.

3. By a Noun, Pronoun, or Adjective, prefixed to the Noun; e. g.,

Masculine.	Feminine.
A cock sparrow.	A hen sparrow.
A he bear.	A she bear.
A he goat.	A she goat.
A male child.	A female child.
A male servant.	A female servant.
Male descendants.	Female descendants.
Man-servant.	Maid-servant.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Masculine of the Feminine Nouns, and the Feminine of the Masculine.

MODEL.—Man, *Woman*; Belle, *Beau*.

Man, bachelor, host, man servant, beau, abbot, baron, drake, boy, deacon, doe, conductor, father, emperor, sister, duke, ambassador, countess, mother, friar, goose, girl, husband, queen, lass, lady, dam, master, spawner, ram, wizard, hind, nephew, songster, votary, traitress, madam, poetess, uncle, daughter, abbess, bride, earl, enchantress, Czarina, lion, em

press, executor, testator, goddess, governess, heroine, huntress, Jewess, traitor, hen sparrow, inheritrix, lioness, instructor, marchioness, songster, Sultana, landgravine, shepherdess, prophetess, prince, testatrix, tigress, traitor, tyranness, victor, votary, viscountess, gander, widower, she-bear, deaconess, male child, man-servant.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a noun of the Masculine Gender. Five containing an example of a noun of the Feminine Gender. Five containing an example of a noun of the Neuter Gender. Five containing a neuter noun changed to the Masculine or Feminine by personification.

P E R S O N .

§ 102. Person is that property of the noun (or pronoun) which distinguishes the speaker, hearer, and person or thing spoken of.

§ 103. There are three Persons; the First, the Second, and the Third.

§ 104. The First Person denotes the speaker; e. g., “I, *George Washington*, &c.”

§ 105. The Second Person denotes the individual addressed; e. g., “*Theodore*, give me my knife.”

§ 106. The Third Person denotes the individual or thing spoken of; e. g., “*Mary* left her book at home.”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Nouns in the first or second person are never used as the subject, or object of a verb, but may be put in apposition with others for the purpose of explanation; e. g., “I, *Paul*, beseech you.”

REMARK 2.—The names of inanimate objects are in the second person, when the objects to which they apply are spoken to. Objects thus addressed are personified, and treated as though they were actual hearers. e. g., “And I have loved *thee*, Ocean.”

EXERCISES.

Tell the person of the nouns in the following exercises;—give the reason.

MODEL.—“I, George Washington,” &c. “*George Washington*” is of the First Person, because the speaker and Washington are one.

“Thomas, bring me your book.”—“*Thomas*” is of the Second Person, because it denotes the individual addressed.

“William is an attentive pupil.” “*William*” is of the Third Person, because it denotes, &c.

Americans should love their country. I, Paul, an apostle of Jesus Christ. John, I want your attention. Susan can write better than her sister. That man is so illiterate, he cannot read. Father, I must have a new book. Henry had many opportunities to learn, but did not improve them. We, the citizens of Montgomery. Matilda, does Alfred study at home? Doctor Murray is an interesting speaker. Mason, the swindler, is at large. Miss M. Eddings was chosen queen of May. The prize essay was written by Thomas. I, Victoria, Queen of England. James, bring me your Virgil. The officer was wounded at Charleston. Men often differ in opinion, even about small things. Boys, you are dismissed. Sister is fond of drawing and painting. Thomas conducted himself very properly.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a noun of the First Person. Five of the Second. Five of the Third.

NUMBER.

§ 107. Number is the distinction of one from more than one.

REMARK.—The distinction of Numbers serves only to show whether we speak of one object or more than one. In some languages, as the Greek and Arabic, there is a dual number which denotes two or a pair; but in ours this property of words, or class of modifications, extends no farther than to distinguish unity from plurality, and plurality from unity. It belongs to nouns and pronouns and finite verbs, and is always applied to them, either by some peculiarity of form, or inference from the principles of concord.

§ 108. Nouns have two numbers; the Singular and the Plural.

§ 109. The Singular Number denotes but one object; e. g., *Man, boy, girl*.

§ 110. The Plural Number denotes more objects than one; e. g., *Men, boys, girls*.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Number of the following nouns.

MODEL.—“*Hat*” is of the Singular Number, because it denotes but one object.

“*Brutes*” is of the Plural Number, because it denotes more objects than one.

Books, horse, nose, hat, inkstand, boy, map, pencil, paper, mother, table, hand, geography, men, boys, cap, mouth, ship,

academy, institute, curls, day, lamp, window, blinds, brother, cousin, pitcher, carpet, rug, mat, books, watch, pencil, friends, infant, chairs, lady, song, mountain, goblet, floor, telescope, andirons, stand, keys.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

§ 111. The Plural Number of Nouns is regularly formed by adding *s* to the Singular; e. g., Boy, *boys*; girl, *girls*.

§ 112. Nouns in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *z*, *x*, or *o*, form the Plural by adding *es*; e. g., Miss, *misses*; brush, *brushes*; match, *matches*; topaz, *topazes*; fox, *foxes*; hero, *heroes*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Nouns in *eo*, *io*, and *yo* have *s* only; e. g., Cameo, *cameos*; folio, *folios*; embryo, *embryos*. So also *canto*, *grotto*, *portico*, *solo*, *halo*, *quarto*, formerly had *s* only in the plural, but now more commonly *es*. Nouns in *ch* sounding *k*, add only *s*; e. g., Monarch, *monarchs*.

§ 113. Nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the Plural by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; e. g., Loaf, *loaves*; wife, *wives*.

EXCEPTIONS.—Dwarf, scarf, reef, brief, chief, grief, handkerchief, mischief, gulf, turf, surf, safe, life, strife, proof, hoof, reproof, follow the general rule. Also nouns in *ff* have their plural in *s*; e. g., muff, *muffs*; except staff, plural *staves*; but its compounds are regular; e. g., flagstaff, *flag-staffs*; wharf has either *wharfs* or *wharves*.

§ 114. Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant form the Plural by changing *y* into *ies*; e. g., Beauty, *beauties*. Nouns in *y* after a vowel, follow the general rule; e. g., Day, *days*; toy, *toys*.

NOUNS IRREGULAR IN THE PLURAL.

§ 115. Some nouns are irregular in the formation of their plural; such as—

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Man,	men.	Tooth,	teeth.
Woman,	women.	Goose,	geese.
Child,	children.	Mouse,	mice.
Foot,	feet.	Louse,	lice.
Ox,	oxen.	Cow, formerly	kine,
		but now regular,	cows.

§ 116. Some nouns have both a regular and an irregular form of the plural, but with different significations; as—

Singular.		Plural.
Brother	(one of the same family)	brothers.
Brother	(one of the same society)	brethren.
Die	(a stamp for coining)	dies.
Die	(a small cube for gaming)	dice.
Genius	(men of genius)	geniuses.
Genius	(a kind of spirit)	genii.
Index	(a table of referer. e)	indexes.
Index	(a sign in algebra)	indices.
Pea	(as a distinct seed)	peas.
Pea	(as a species of grain)	pease.
Sow	(an individual animal)	sows.
Sow or swine	(the species)	swine.
Penny	(a coin——)	pennies.
Penny	(a sum or value)	pence.

REMARK.—Though pence is plural, yet such expressions as four-pence, six-pence, as the name of a sum, are regarded singular, and have a plural; e. g., “Two *six-pences* make a shilling.”

§ 117. Compounds, consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen, are composed, either of two Nouns, one in

the sense of an Adjective, or a Noun and an Adjective. In such words, the sign of the Plural is added to that part of the compound which constitutes the Noun, whether at the end of the word or not; e. g.,

Singular.	Plural.
Aid-de-camp,	aids-de-camp.
Father-in-law,	fathers-in-law.
Commander-in-chief,	commanders-in-chief.

NOTE.—Compounds ending in *ful* or *full* form the plural regularly; e. g., spoon-ful, *spoon-fuls*; cup-full, *cup-fulls*.

§ 113. Words adopted without change from foreign languages, generally retain their original plural. As a general rule, nouns in *um* or *on*, have *a* in the plural. Latin nouns in *is*, in the plural change *is* into *es*; Greek nouns in *is*, change *is* into *ides*; Latin nouns in *a*, change *a* into *æ*; but Greek nouns change *a* into *ata* in the plural. The following are the most common, some of which, however, from common use, have become so much a part of the language as to have also the regular *English* form of the plural. In the following table these are indicated by the letter R.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Alumnus,	alumni.	Bandit,	banditti.
Alumna,	alumnæ.	Basis,	bases.
Amanuensis,	amanuenses.	Beau,	beaux, R.
Analysis,	analyses.	Calx,	calces, R.
Animalculum,	animalcula, R.	Cherub,	cherubim, R.
Antithesis,	antitheses.	Chrysalis,	chrysalides.
Apex,	apices, R.	Crisis,	crises.
Appendix,	appendices, R.	Criterion,	criteria.
Arcanum,	arcana.	Datum,	data.
Automaton,	automata, R.	Desideratum,	desiderata.
Axis,	axes.	Diæresis,	diæreses.

Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Effluvium,	effluvia.	Metamorphosis,	metamorphoses.
Ellipsis,	ellipses.	Miasma,	miasmata.
Emphasis,	emphases.	Momentum,	momenta, R.
Encomium,	encomia, R.	Monsieur,	messieurs.
Ephemeris,	ephemerides.	Mr. (master),	messrs.(masters)
Erratum,	errata.	Nebula,	nebulæ.
Focus,	foci.	Oasis,	oases.
Formula,	formulæ, R.	Parenthesis,	parentheses.
Fungus,	fungi, funguses.	Phenomenon,	phenomena.
Genius,	genii.	Radius,	radii.
Genus,	genera.	Scholium,	scholia, R.
Gymnasium,	gymnasia, R.	Seraph,	seraphim, R.
Hypothesis,	hypotheses.	Speculum,	specula.
Ignis fatuus,	ignes fatui.	Stamen,	stamina, R.
Index(a pointer) indexes.		Stimulus,	stimuli.
Index(in algeb.) indices.		Stratum,	strata.
Lamina,	laminæ.	Thesis,	theses.
Larva,	larvæ.	Vertebra,	vertebræ.
Magus,	magi.	Vertex,	vertices, R.
Medium,	media, R.	Virtuoso,	virtuosi.
Memorandum	memoranda, R.	Vortex,	vortices, R.

§ 119. The names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and things that are either weighed or measured, are used only in the Singular; e. g., *Gold, industry, sculpture.*

§ 120. The names of things weighed or measured, admit of a Plural, when several kinds of the same sort are referred to; e. g., *Wheats, teas.*

§ 121. Some nouns are used only in the Plural; e. g., *Antipodes, annals, ashes, archives, assets, clothes, measles, oats, wages, tidings, billows, tongs, &c.*


§ 122. Some nouns are alike in both numbers; e. g., *Deer*, *sheep*, *swine*, *trout*, *apparatus*, *salmon*, *cannon*, *series*, *means*, *species*, &c.

§ 123. Some nouns are Plural in form, but either Singular or Plural in meaning; e. g., *Amends*, *means*, *news*, *riches*, *ethics*, *conics*, *optics*, *mathematics*, &c.

REMARK.—*Means* and *amends* are Singular when they refer to one object, but Plural when more than one.

PLURAL OF PROPER NAMES.

§ 124. In addressing letters to several of the same name, the title is generally pluralized; e. g., *The Misses Bell*; *the Messrs. Kerr*; or before different names; e. g., *Messrs. Smith, Son, & Co.* But in colloquial style, the *name* is usually pluralized; e. g., *The Miss Bells*; *the two Mr. Kings*; unless before different names; e. g., *Misses Anna and Julia King*; *Messrs. Snow & Rice*; *Messrs. Pratt & Co.*

 The *name* and *title* both never take the plural form.

EXERCISES.

Write the Plural of the following Nouns:

Girl, pen, table, tax, fish, chain, king, man, ring, body, leaf, mill, fox, ox, garden, fly, knife, city, fork, play, day, calf, lamp, cherry, woe, army, coach, child, hero, berry, peach, wolf, volcano, lash, thief, branch, hill, sister, duty, penny, foot, inch, queen, dish, witch, buffalo, wish, copy, brush, glass, cargo, sheaf, sky, river, miss, witness, thrush, boy, monarch, toy, sheep, sex, beauty, potato, lass, echo, chimney, journey, book, valley, mouse, arcanum, court-martial, eclipse, automaton, axis, basis, crisis, criterion, effluvium, datum, diæresis, hypothesis, focus, erratum, genius, medium, lamina, parenthesis, radius,

phenomenon, stamen, sloth, stimulus, stratum, virtuoso, means, apparatus, species, series, gold, foot, tooth, pride, ambition, trout, mathematics, cannon.

Write the Singular of the following Plurals:

Brothers, children, wives, reproofs, tongs, criteria, crises, errata, sheep, ethics, courts-martial, cherubim, effluvia, riches, desiderata, species, scissors, lungs, ashes, optics, mathematics, teeth, thrushes, animalcula, apices, dice, boys, mice, vortices, theses, strata, stamina, seraphim, parentheses, memoranda, antipodes, arcana, alumni, foci, laminæ, encomia.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Noun?

How are they divided?

What is a Proper Noun? Common?

Collective? Abstract? Verbal?

Diminutive?

What is Gender?

How many Genders are there?

What does the Masculine denote?

The Feminine? Neuter?

What is said of the gender of animals whose sex is unknown?

What is the gender of Child frequently?

What is said of Neuter Nouns?

What of the gender of some Nouns?

Of Common Gender?

How many ways are there of distinguishing sex?

What is the First? The Second? Third?

What is Person?

How many persons are there?

What does the First Person denote?

The Second? The Third?

What is meant by Number?

How many numbers are there?

What does the Singular denote?

The Plural?

What Nouns are Plural in form and Singular or Plural in construction?

When do Proper Names take the Plural form?

What is said of the title Miss?

C A S E .

§ 125. Case is the relation of the noun (or pronoun) to other words in a sentence.

EXPLANATION.—A Sentence is an assemblage of words so arranged as to constitute a distinct proposition; e. g., "*Horses run.*"

§ 126. There are three Cases; the Nominative, the Possessive, and the Objective.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Case, in grammar, is founded on the different relations under which things are represented in discourse, and from which words acquire connexions and dependencies according to the sense. In Latin there are six cases, in Greek five; the nouns and pronouns of these languages, and also adjectives and participles, are varied by terminations unknown in our language. In English, cases belong to nouns and pronouns, and are never more than three.

REMARK 2.—It was a subject of long dispute among grammarians what number of cases belonged properly to our language. Some, taking the Latin for their model, contended for six cases, others again denied that there were more than two. Public opinion is now clear in the decision that nouns in English have three cases.

REMARK 3.—The Objective Case of Nouns is of the same form as the nominative, and is distinguished from it only by the sense and position. The one cannot be mistaken for the other, without a total misconception of the author's meaning.

NOMINATIVE CASE.

§ 127. The Nominative Case indicates the relation of the subject; e. g., "*Horses* run."

EXPLANATION.—The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed. In the sentence "Horses run," "*horses*" is in the Nominative Case, because it indicates the relation of the subject.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Nominative Case generally precedes the Verb.

REMARK 2.—This Case is sometimes used as the attribute of a proposition;—to identify the subject;—and in independent expressions.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns that are in the Nominative Case;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—"Dogs bark." "*Dogs*" is in the Nominative Case, because it indicates the relation of the subject.

Mary sings. Girls play. Thomas pumps. Children cry. William reads. Soldiers fight. The cat scratches. The lamp smokes. The hero conquered. Serpents hiss. Owls hoot. Fish swim in the river. Girls play in the yard. Matilda paints. People vote. Mirrors reflect. Animals live. Trees fall. Parrots talk. Elizabeth can sing. The tyrant is base. George can write. Thomas has spoken. Mary embroiders. Francis and Robert are in the garden. The boys obey the teacher. Time flies swiftly. Henry submits patiently. Tho

mas believes John. The general commanded the army. Father received the information to-day. James is doing the work.

The woodman is cutting down the tree. The men are receiving their wages. John is going to Florida. Robert owns the boat. Mary has finished her task. Do you know all the particulars? We depend on your assistance. The ball went over the house. Mary has written to her sister. The lion is in the cage. Arnold was a traitor to his country. Lucy is an excellent instructress. Milton was a distinguished poet. Anna is an affectionate daughter. Mary Smith has an amiable disposition. William is older than John. Henry studies grammar and arithmetic. Alexander writes neatly. John is endeavoring to obtain the highest honor in his class. Minnie excels in composition. Has your uncle sold his farm?

POSSESSIVE CASE.

§ 128. The Possessive Case indicates the relation of ownership, source, or kind; e. g., "*Alfred's* knife; *Sun's* rays; *Webster's* Dictionary."

EXPLANATION.—"*Alfred's* knife; *Sun's* rays; *Webster's* Dictionary." "*Alfred's*" denotes ownership, "*Sun's*" source, and "*Webster's*" kind.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—"In respect to all matters of syntax considered exclusively, it is so thoroughly a matter of indifference whether a word be an adjective or a genitive case, that Wallis considers the words in 's, like father's, not as genitive cases, but adjectives. Looking to the logic of the question, he is right; and looking to the practical syntax of the question, he is right also. He is wrong only on the etymological side."—LATHAM.

REMARK 2.—The Possessive Case always precedes its limiting word; e. g., *Alfred's* knife.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns that are in the Possessive Case;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—“Henry’s cap.” “*Henry’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits the ownership to “*Henry*.”

“Sun’s rays.” “*Sun’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits source to “*sun*.”

“Mitchell’s Geography.” “*Mitchell’s*” is in the Possessive Case, because it limits kind to “*Mitchell*.”

William has lost Alfred’s knife. Merchants have boy’s hats. The dog has bitten John’s finger. Robert’s brother has purchased land in Texas. Willis rode Alfred’s pony. Mary’s diligence deserves praise. Henry uses Davies’ Arithmetic. Samuel’s father lives in town. Edward’s industry will gain friends. Washington’s army endured many hardships. Stephen’s courage failed. Wildredge sold Alfred’s ball. Have you examined Nordheimer’s Grammar? Sarah’s kitten is very playful. Robert has found his mother’s fan. Jane’s sister cultivates flowers in her yard. Robert’s teacher prefers Day’s Algebra. William’s dog caught the thief. Alger’s Arithmetic is highly recommended. Sarah’s pencil is on the table.

Archimedes’ screw was the topic of conversation. The servant has Ella’s coral. Gertrude’s Dream is a beautiful waltz. Father’s spectacles are on his nose. The king’s command must be obeyed. Have you seen William’s cap? What do you think of Comstock’s Philosophy? Robert’s tutor is sick. His theme was “The Soldier’s Prowess.” Napoleon’s army was defeated. Hand me brother’s slate. My knife is on Robert’s desk.

RULES FOR FORMING THE POSSESSIVE.

§ 129. A Noun in the Singular Number forms the Possessive regularly by adding the apostrophe and the letter *s* to the Nominative; e. g., Alfred, *Alfred's*.

§ 130. The comma that precedes the *s* is called an apostrophe.

§ 131. When the Nominative Plural ends in *s*, the Possessive is formed by adding the apostrophe only; e. g., Boy, *boys'*.

§ 132. When the Plural does not end in *s*, the Possessive is formed by taking the apostrophe and the letter *s*; e. g., Men, *men's*.

§ 133. When the Singular ends with the sound of *s*, or *z*, to avoid harshness of sound, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted; e. g., *Goodness' sake*; *Archimedes' screw*.

§ 134. In regard to the omission of the *s*, no definite rule can be given; the ear alone must decide.

NOTE.—There is considerable diversity of opinion and usage on this point. Some few insist on retaining *s* after the apostrophe in every position; as, "Xanthus's stock of patience."—*L'Estrange*. Others drop the *s* only before a word beginning with an *s*, or an *s*-sound, as above; while others drop the *s* wherever the use of it would produce harshness, or difficulty of pronunciation. Though in this last, the usage which omits the *s* is less prevalent and less accurate than that which retains it, yet, from the sanction it has obtained—from the stiffness and harshness which retaining the *s* often occasions—and from the tendency in all spoken languages to abbreviation and euphony, it seems destined to prevail against all arguments to the contrary.

§ 135. In compound words the sign of the Possessive is placed at the end of the word; e. g., Robert rode his *father-in-law's* horse.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—This sign (*'s*) used after characters merely denotes plurality ; e. g., “The *y*’s, the *x*’s, and the *z*’s.”

REMARK 2.—This sign (*'s*) is a contraction of *is* or *es* ; e. g., “John’s and King’s” anciently were written *Johnis*, *Kingis* ; and sometimes *Johnes*, *Kinges*.

REMARK 3.—The meaning of the Possessive may, in general, be expressed by the word *of* with the Objective ; thus for “*man’s* wisdom,” “*virtue’s* reward,” we may say the wisdom of man, the reward of virtue. This mode should be adopted, when the use of the Possessive would appear stiff or awkward ; e. g., “The length of the day,” in place of the day’s length.

EXERCISES.

Write the Possessive of the following words.

MODEL.—Dog, *dog’s*.

Girl, book, man, witness, Alice, Charles, master, prince, pupil, author, Creator, clock, Adam, Aristides, Knox, mischief, beauty, sister, goodness, righteousness, Murray, conscience, brother, mother-in-law, knight-errant, cobbler, carpenter, uncle, cousin, aunt, soldier, duty, Mary, Alfred, scholar, Socrates, Moses, teacher, doctor, James, philosopher, Kepler, Cass, grammarian, William, Fox, alderman, Melcher, Beech, countess, objector, husband, Fulton, Johnson, astronomer, Puritan.

OBJECTIVE CASE.

§ 136. The Objective Case expresses the relation of the object. It is used to limit the action of a Transitive Verb, or complete the relation of Preposition ; e. g., “Fulton applied *steam* to *navigation*.”

EXPLANATION.—In the sentence “Fulton applied steam to navigation,” *steam* limits the action expressed by the verb *applied*; *navigation* completes the relation of the preposition *to*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—This case may be known by its answering to *whom*, or *what*, after the Verb or Preposition; e. g., “Fulton applied steam to navigation.” “Applied what?” “Applied steam.” “To what?” “To navigation.”

REMARK 2.—The Objective Case with the preposition *of* is frequently used instead of the Possessive; e. g., “The power of the Almighty.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Nouns in the Objective;—tell how you know they are in that case.

MODEL.—“Merchants sell *goods* to customers.” “*Goods*” is in the Objective Case, because it limits the action expressed by the transitive verb *sell*. “Sell what?” “Sell goods.”

“*Customers*” is in the Objective Case, because it completes the relation expressed by the preposition *to*. “To what?” “To *customers*.”

Idleness produces poverty. James loves play. Perseverance overcomes difficulties. Bees collect honey from flowers. Kittens love mischief. Soldiers fight for glory. The lawyer was engaged by the man. Birds build nests in tall trees. History relates facts of the ancients. Preparations were made for the party. Thomas writes exercises at school. Brother is studying astronomy with father. Alfred computed the interest on the note. Robert killed game for his aunt. Planets revolve in the firmament.

Planters own slaves. Father blamed Thomas for his unkindness to James. The president promoted the officer. Fire consumes wood. Teachers praise diligent pupils. Charles has

read the book. America has produced many distinguished men. The jury after much consideration returned the verdict. The frost has destroyed the prospect for fruit this year. Washington Irving has written a history of Columbus, the great navigator. All esteem Mary for her noble qualities. Uncle has just returned from Washington, the capital of the United States.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

§ 137. The Declension of a Noun is its variation to denote Number and Case.

REMARK.—There are a few irregular Nouns that vary from these examples.

EXAMPLE I.—FRIEND.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Friend.	<i>Nom.</i> Friends.
<i>Poss.</i> Friend's.	<i>Poss.</i> Friends'.
<i>Obj.</i> Friend.	<i>Obj.</i> Friends.

EXAMPLE II.—FOX.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Fox.	<i>Nom.</i> Foxes.
<i>Poss.</i> Fox's.	<i>Poss.</i> Foxes'.
<i>Obj.</i> Fox.	<i>Obj.</i> Foxes.

EXAMPLE III.—FLY.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Fly.	<i>Nom.</i> Flies.
<i>Poss.</i> Fly's.	<i>Poss.</i> Flies'.
<i>Obj.</i> Fly.	<i>Obj.</i> Flies.

EXAMPLE IV.—MAN.

Singular.	Plural.
<i>Nom.</i> Man.	<i>Nom.</i> Men.
<i>Poss.</i> Man's.	<i>Poss.</i> Men's.
<i>Obj.</i> Man.	<i>Obj.</i> Men.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Gender, Number, Person and Case, of the Nouns in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“*Matilda* excels *Augusta* in penmanship.” “*Matilda*” is a Noun, Proper, Feminine, of the Third Person; it is made in the Nominative Singular, and is the subject of the proposition “*Matilda* excels *Augusta* in penmanship.”

“*Augusta*” is a Noun, Proper, Feminine, of the Third Person; it is made in the Objective Singular, and limits the action expressed by the transitive verb *excels*.

“*Penmanship*” is a Noun, Common, Neuter, of the Third Person; it is made in the Objective Singular, and completes the relation expressed by the preposition *in*.

Henry has lost William’s book. Thomas borrowed Alfred’s gun for George. Matilda’s slate is on Sarah’s desk. Birds have wings. Seamen navigate ships. Uncle has a large income from his plantation. Robert’s diligence deserves the highest commendation. The sun’s rays have dispersed the clouds. Julia has soiled Mary’s gloves. Charles is making a fortune by close application to his business. Did the dog bite John’s finger yesterday? Susan walked with Mary by moonlight. The frost may injure the crop.

Our teacher shall decide the difficulty for us. Thomas saw Charles. William told a pleasing anecdote about George. Elizabeth fainted in church. The poor man died of hunger. William’s horse ran with his brother. Matilda excels Sarah in penmanship. God’s goodness is great. Industry promotes happiness. Albert’s dog guards the house at night. Americans love to speak of Washington. Seamen navigate ships. Christ often spoke in parables. Robbers waylay travelers for plunder. William’s sister destroyed her book. Napoleon Bonaparte took the city of Moscow. The king’s heart is in

the hands of the Lord. We have finished the task. John wishes to be excused from recitation.

PARSING.

Parsing consists :—

1. In telling the *Part of Speech* ;
2. In naming its properties, or accidents ;
3. In pointing out its relation to other words, and giving the rule for its construction.

In parsing a Noun, say :—

1. It is a *Noun* ; (why ?)
2. It is *Common* or *Proper* ; (why ?)
3. It is of the *Masculine*, *Feminine*, or *Neuter Gender* ; (why ?)
4. It is of the *Frist*, *Second*, or *Third Person* ; (Why ?)
5. It is made in the *Nominative*, *Possessive*, or *Objective Case* ; (why ?)
6. *Singular* or *Plural Number* ; (why ?)
7. *Rule* for Construction.

REMARK.—The pupil who has been thoroughly drilled on the introductory course, may parse without giving the reasons.

EXERCISES.

Parse the Nouns in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“John drove the horse from father's barn.” “*John*” is a Noun, Proper, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Nominative Singular, and is the subject of the proposition, “John drove the horse from father's barn,” according to

RULE I.—The Subject of a proposition must be in the Nominative Case.

"*Horse*" is a Noun, Common, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Objective Singular, and limits the action expressed by the verb *drove*, according to

RULE III.—A Noun or Pronoun used to limit the action of a transitive verb must be in the Objective Case.

"*Father's*" is a Noun, Common, Masculine, of the Third Person. It is made in the Possessive Singular, and limits *barn*, according to

RULE V.—A Noun or Pronoun used to limit the relation of ownership source or kind, is put in the Possessive.

"*Barn*" is a Noun, Common, Neuter, of the Third Person. It is made in the Objective Singular, and completes the relation expressed by the preposition *from*, according to

RULE X.—A Noun or Pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition must be in the Objective Case.

Thomas hurt James. Webster visited Europe. Robert purchased toys for his brother. Quarrels make trouble. William owns the book. Mary gathered flowers for Julia. Men worship God. Piety promotes happiness. Anger causes hatred. Jane's uncle Stephen gave her bad advice. The architect draws plans for buildings. Antony beheaded Cicero. Diligence deserves praise. Willis called Alfred. The girls have gone to gather strawberries. Uncle's orchard produces fine fruit. Lucy may study music. Labor disgraces no man. George has read the required course in Latin. We ascended the mountain by a crooked path.

Dale, the carpenter, has gone to New York. Edward has lost the point of his pencil. Samuel's brother lives near the city. Washington endured many hardships in achieving the independence of his country. Davies' Course of Mathematics is very generally used in this section. Nero has got mother's fan in his mouth and is carrying it to her. Have you heard our eloquent senator? Charles may yet find it to his advantage to listen to his father's advice. Edward's obliging dispo-

sition will gain him many friends. What kind of a place do you live in? Give me a description of your ride home. Relate an anecdote about the dog. Is it cruel to kill animals? Composition is the putting together of thoughts under a subject.

QUESTIONS.

What is Case?

How many Cases are there?

Upon what is the distinction of Case founded?

What does the Nominative Case express?

What does it usually precede?

How is it distinguished?

How is the Possessive Singular formed?

What is the rule when the Plural ends in *s*?

When it does not end in *s*?

When the Singular ends in *ss* or letters of a similar sound?

What is said of Compound Words?

What does the Objective Case express?

How used?

How distinguished?

What is Declension?

Decline Man. Friend. Fox. Fly.

V E R B .

§ 138. A Verb is a word by which something is affirmed of a person or thing; e. g., “*Matilda reads;*” “*Virtue is praised;*” “*Thomas sleeps.*”

EXPLANATION.—That of which anything is affirmed is called the subject of the verb; that which is affirmed of the subject

is called the predicate. In the example, "Matilda reads," *reads* is a verb because it expresses what is affirmed of Matilda.

NOTE.—So various have been the opinions of grammarians respecting this part of speech, that no definition yet given is considered unobjectionable. The greatest and most acute philologists confess that a faultless definition is difficult, if not impossible to be formed. Horne Took, the distinguished author of the *Diversions of Purley*, after citing with contempt various efforts at a definition, some in Latin, some in English, and some in French, turns from them with disgust, leaving his readers to imagine if they can, what he conceived a verb to be.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A Verb expresses an action or state; e. g., "Matilda *reads*;" "Thomas *sleeps*;"—or it connects an attribute with the subject; e. g., "The earth *is* round."

REMARK 2.—All verbs belong to the former of these classes, except the verb *to be*, the most common use of which is to connect an attribute with a subject. When so used it is called the *copula*.

REMARK 3.—The word affirm, as used in the definition given of the verb, includes an *absolute* declaration, a *conditional* statement, an *interrogation*, a *petition*, and a *command*; e. g., "Emma *learns*;" "If Emma *learns*;" "Does Emma *learn*?" "May Emma *learn*;" "Emma, *learn*."

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs in the following exercises;—tell how you know them.

MODEL.—"John spoke." "*Spoke*" is a Verb, because it expresses what is affirmed of John.

Birds sing. Animals live. Stars shine. Night comes. Fruit ripens. Cornwallis surrendered. The agreement was fulfilled. Flowers bloom. The invalid has recovered. Good deeds are praiseworthy. Men prevail. The pirates were condemned. The story was interesting. Good children obey their parents. The magistrates executed the law. The soldiers stood to arms. Cicero expelled Catiline. Wicked men are revengeful. Bad boys delight in mischief. Great labor brings great reward. The air is damp. Anna Nutting has gone to Sumpter. Julia is an interesting child. Mary has bought a new dress.

Soldiers fight for glory. Alfred has performed his task. Henry found a knife in the road. Robbers waylay travelers for plunder. The horse ran with George. Thomas saw Rufus at school. The frost has injured the garden. Father gave the permission. Jane plotted with Martha. Minnie fainted in church. Who will read the story to Edward? The smith shod the horse. The mind requires relaxation. Perseverance overcomes difficulties. Idleness produces want. The president decided the question. Girls love amusement. Willis delivered the message. Brother Edwin wrote the letter. The prudent boy avoids danger.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write ten nouns, five proper and five common, with predicates to each.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS.

§ 139. Verbs are of two kinds: Transitive, and Intransitive.

§ 140. Transitive Verbs are such as admit of an object; e. g., “Charles struck *William*.”

§ 141. Intransitive Verbs are such as do not admit of an object; e. g., “Mary *sleeps*.”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The word *transitive* means passing over; Verbs of this class are so called, because the action is represented as passing over from the subject to the object; e. g., “Henry struck Charles.”

REMARK 2.—As the object of a transitive verb is in the objective case, any verb which makes sense with *me*, *thee*, *him*, *her*, *us*, or *them*, is a transitive verb; e. g., “Thomas saw him.”

REMARK 3.—The same verb may be transitive in one sense, and intransitive in another. In the sentence, “He believes my story,” *believes* is transitive; but in the sentence, “He believes in God,” the verb is intransitive.

REMARK 4.—Intransitive verbs, from their nature, have no distinction of voice. In form they are generally active; e. g., “I *stand*.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs;—tell which are Transitive, and which Intransitive.

MODEL.—“Horses eat corn.” “*Eat*” is a Verb, because it expresses what is affirmed of horses;—Transitive, because it is limited by the object corn.

“The wind blows.” “*Blows*” is a Verb, because it expresses what is affirmed of wind;—Intransitive, because it does not admit of an object.

Henry struck George. Geese swim in the pond. Little Tip growled at Jane. The dog barks. Edward saw James. Henry

lives there. Boys swim in the river. The soldiers camped in the field. John laughed at Thomas. George found Edward's arithmetic. The artist has finished the painting. Hiram slept on the sofa. Caroline disobeyed her mother's instruction. Writers often differ on unimportant topics. John gathered some nice grapes for his mother. Men vote at elections. Time and tide wait for no man. God created the heavens and the earth.

Minnie admires music. James has gained much information. Eliza's doll is in Jane's box. The earth produces fruit for man. Idleness produces poverty. Robert's dog has caught a squirrel. The moon shines bright. Pamelia remained after school. The sun has parched the earth. Virtue and vice have their reward. The carpenter has built a new bridge across the river. Emma smiled sweetly. Georgiann has many admirers. Anna has gone to Sumpter to visit her aunt. Jane repented of her conduct too late. Good habits secure respect. The falls of Niagara are on a river of the same name. Pope constrained his mind to his own rules of composition.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a Transitive Verb;—write five containing an example of an Intransitive Verb. Point out and explain the difference between the Transitive and Intransitive Verb by an example of each in the same sentence.

DIVISION OF VERBS.

§ 142. In respect to form, Verbs are either Regular, Irregular, or Defective.

§ 143. A Regular Verb is one that forms its second root by the addition of *d* to the first when it ends in a vowel, and *ed*, when a consonant; e. g., Love, *loved*; paint, *painted*.

EXPLANATION.—The first root is the simple form of the verb, and is always the same as the First Person Singular of Indicative Present; e. g., *Love, paint*.

§ 144. An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its second root by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the first; e. g., Fight, *fought*.

EXPLANATION.—In irregular verbs the second root is formed by some change or modification of the first; e. g., Sing, *sang*; bite, *bit*.

§ 145. A Defective Verb is one that wants some of its parts. —They are chiefly the Auxiliary and Impersonal Verbs.

INFLECTION OF VERBS.

§ 146. To the Inflection of Verbs belong *Voices*, *Moods*, *Tenses*, *Numbers*, and *Persons*.

VOICES.

§ 147. Voice is a particular form of the verb, which shows the relation of the subject, or thing spoken of, to the action expressed by the verb.

§ 148. Transitive verbs have two voices; the *Active*, and the *Passive*.

§ 149. A verb in the Active Voice represents the subject as acting on some person or thing called the object; e. g., “John struck *Charles*.”

§ 150. The Passive Voice represents the object as being acted upon by the agent; e. g., “*Charles* was struck by John.”

REMARK.—From a comparison of the two preceding examples, it is obvious that they have the same meaning. The Passive Voice may be substituted for the Active, at the pleasure of the speaker, by making the object of the active the subject of the passive, and the subject of the active the object of relation; e. g., “John struck Charles;”—“*Charles* was struck by John.”

EXERCISES.

Substitute the Active form of the verb for the Passive, and the Passive for the Active.

Virtue produces happiness. America was discovered by Columbus. Henry and his cousin study grammar. Virgil wrote poems. Teachers praise diligent pupils. Teeth are extracted by dentists. Brutus killed Cæsar. Cornwallis was defeated by Washington. The fishermen were mending their nets. The plantation was cultivated by about forty hands. The old servant followed little Mary to school. The horse was shod by the smith.

William assisted his brother. The composition was read by sister Maria. Mariners traverse the ocean. The discovery of the theft created great confusion among the pupils. The earth produces fruit for man and beast. Parents should be obeyed by their children. Rome was burnt by the Emperor

Nero. Evil communications corrupt good manners. By diligent study and perseverance the professor attained great reputation. Punctuality begets great confidence. The stars were hidden by the dark clouds. Old puss was bitten by Carlo. The warm rays of the sun melted the ice. Scipio conquered Hannibal. Mummius after a long siege destroyed Corinth.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—In the Active Voice the object is sometimes omitted; e. g., “Richard reads.”

REMARK 2.—When the agent is unknown, or we wish to conceal the name by drawing attention only to the *act*, and the object affected by it, we use the Passive Voice; e. g., “Cornwallis *was defeated*.” But when we wish to make the agent prominent, we use the Active Voice; e. g., “Washington *defeated* Cornwallis.”

REMARK 3.—An Intransitive Verb cannot be used passively, because it has no object for a subject. But Intransitive Verbs followed by a preposition are sometimes put in the passive form by making the object of the preposition the subject of the verb; e. g., “She smiled on *him*,” “*He* was smiled on by her.”

REMARK 4.—Intransitive Verbs are sometimes followed by the objective case of a noun of kindred signification to their own; e. g., “Thomas ran a *race* with Henry.”

REMARK 5.—A few Intransitive Verbs, as *come, arise, fall, rise, &c.*, have the form of the passive voice, but are active in signification; e. g., “I *am* come,” (have come).

This idiom may be regarded as an imitation of the French or German forms of similar verbs.

REMARK 6.—When a verb takes two objects in the active voice, one direct and the other indirect, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the passive; e. g., “I told him a story,” “*He* was told a story.”

M O O D S .

§ 151. Moods are forms of the verb, denoting the manner of the action or state expressed by the verb.

§ 152. There are five Moods; the *Indicative*, the *Subjunctive*, the *Potential*, the *Imperative*, and the *Infinitive*.

§ 153. The Indicative Mood expresses an assertion, or asks a question; e. g., “*I praise;*” “*Do I praise?*”

§ 154. The Subjunctive Mood expresses a condition, supposition or doubt; and always has a conjunction before it expressed or understood; e. g., “*If Mary study, she will improve.*”

§ 155. The Potential Mood expresses ability, power, will, or obligation; e. g., “*I may write.*”

§ 156. The Imperative Mood expresses a command, request, or permission; e. g., “*Obey your parents.*”

§ 157. The Infinitive Mood expresses an action, or state, without limiting it to any person or thing as its subject; e. g., “*To love.*”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verb in the following exercises;—tell the Mood that it is made in.

MODEL.—“*Virgil wrote poems.*” “*Wrote*” is a Verb; it is made in the Indicative Mood, because it expresses an assertion.

The day is very pleasant. If it rains, I shall not go to Montgomery. The company were seated by the fire. Do let me help you. If I were to write, he would not regard it. Imitate the example of the good; shun the bad. May I go to the concert? Alfred loves to oblige Matilda. Do you love to oblige your parents? My son, avoid all haughtiness of behavior. Improve your diction.

Mary will assist, if desired. Are you fond of political debates? Please excuse James from recitation this morning. Charles should read Rollin's Ancient History. Love justice, temperance, and frugality. Can you go to town to-morrow? May I speak to Miss Hannah? Robert has gone to attend the lecture, and will not return before morning. Good example is worthy of imitation.

I could love her, but for her disposition. George might write to his father by James. The lamb is an emblem of innocence. Permit me to leave my seat. Honor thy father and mother. Has my boy broken his promise? It is wrong to avenge an injury. I love them that love me, and they that seek me early shall find me. Come unto me, all ye that are weary and heavy laden, and I will give you rest.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Indicative Mood is used in principal propositions. It is employed to represent what is *actual*, or *absolute*. It is also used in interrogative or exclamatory sentences; e. g., "*Has sister arrived?*" "*Thomas has broken Robert's slate!*"

This mood is often used in subordinate propositions; in such cases, it always represents what is actual; e. g., "I know *that* he is a scholar."

REMARK 2.—The Subjunctive Mood is so called, because it is used only in dependent clauses. It is usually connected with the principal or leading clause by a conjunction, such as *if*, *that*, *unless*, *though*, *lest*, &c. This mood, in its distinctive form, is now but little used. There is a strong tendency by the best writers and speakers to lay it aside and use the indicative and potential in its place. Indeed, the indicative form, “If he *goes*,”—or, “If he *shall go* ;”—or the potential form, “If he *should go*,” is now almost always preferred to the subjunctive form. The best of the recent writers on this subject, regard such expressions, as “If he should go,” as the future, elliptical; so then this mood is nothing more than the indicative or potential under the influence of some particle denoting condition. It has the same number of tenses as the indicative.

REMARK 3.—The Potential Mood is also used in principal propositions; not, however, to represent the actual, but that which at the time of speaking exists, or is supposed to exist, only in idea. This mood may be used in interrogative, exclamatory, or supplicatory sentences. It may be used in subordinate propositions to represent what is ideal or what has not been realised.

This mood may be known by its signs *may*, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *would*, *should*.

REMARK 4.—The Imperative Mood is used in principal propositions. This mood is used to express *will* or *desire* ; it may usually be known by the omission of the subject.

REMARK 5.—The Infinitive Mood is used in abridged propositions; as the element of another proposition it is wholly dependent. It is never used to assert anything, and is not varied by person and number like the tenses of other moods.

In construction it may be regarded as a verbal or abstract noun. As such it is used,

1. As the subject of a proposition ; e. g., “ *To err* is human.”
2. With the copula, as a predicate ; e. g., “ *To obey* is *to enjoy*.”
3. In apposition ; e. g., “ Delightful task, *to instruct* the young.”
4. As the object of a transitive verb ; e. g., “ Emma loves *to play*.”
5. As the object of a preposition ; e. g., “ James is about *to leave*.”

This mood, while it has the construction of a noun, may have all the modifications of a verb. The sign *to* that precedes it, by some is called a preposition ; it resembles a preposition in nothing but form.

Horne Tooke says that *to* has the same origin as *do*, and is indeed the same word.—“ Verbs in English not being distinguished as in other languages by a peculiar termination, and it being sometimes impossible to distinguish them by their *place*, when the old termination of the Anglo-Saxon verbs was dropped, this word *to* (i. e. *act*,) became necessary to be prefixed, in order to distinguish them from nouns, and to invest them with the verbal character, for there is no difference between the NOUN, love, and the VERB, to love, but what must be comprised in the prefix *to*.”—*Diversions of Purley*.

“And for the same reasons that *to* is put before the infinitive, *do* used formerly to be put before such other parts of the VERB which likewise were not distinguished from the noun by termination.”—*Ibid*. Thus it seems, in the opinion of this distinguished author, the sign *to* before the infinitive is an auxiliary verb.

TENSES.

§ 158. Tenses are forms of the verb, denoting the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.

§ 159. There are three divisions of time ;—the *Past*, the *Present*, and the *Future*.

REMARK.—The Present, strictly speaking, is the point in which the Past and Future meet, and which of itself has no space of continuance. If we take the smallest imaginable portion of time for the Present, it will contain some of the Past and some of the Future. In grammar, however, the Present is not regarded in this strict sense, but as extending to a greater or less period, of which the passing instant forms a part ; as, *this moment, hour, day, week, &c., &c.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs in the following exercises ;—mention the divisions of time referred to.

Emma plays well. Jane will go home. The rain is falling fast. David was badly injured yesterday. Ellen saw her sister in the buggy. Matilda walked in the garden. Mary loves her teacher and her school. Preparations were made for a picnic. Your exercises are well written. Martha is very troublesome. Thomas will assist his brother.

I heard a noise in the park. Fulton applied steam to navigation. The hunters caught a fox with the dogs. Gentle manners are winning. Bad boys often do wrong. William's pony galloped through the field. Human knowledge is progressive. Alfred will obtain the prize for good conduct. The

elephant will kill the tiger. The Savior spoke in parables. Merchants sell goods to customers. Will you bring me that book? Sallie cut the apple with John's knife.

§ 160. In each division of time there are two Tenses ;—*First* and *Second*. There are, therefore, six tenses ;—three *first*, and three *second*.

§ 161. The First Tenses take the name of the division to which they belong. They are called the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Future*.

§ 162. The Second Tenses add second to the name of the division. They are called *Second Present*, *Second Past*, and *Second Future*.

REMARK.—The names of the tenses as given above, are the most appropriate that can be adopted. They are naturally suggested by the *first* and *second* root from which they are formed, but what is of more consequence in the use of them, there is no sacrifice of *truth* to *symmetry*.

§ 163. The Present Tense represents an action as now going on; e. g., *I love*; *I am loved*.

REMARK 1.—This tense is often used to express what is habitual or universal; e. g., “Thomas *reads* to his sister every day;” “Vice *produces* misery.”

REMARK 2.—It is used in animated narrations, to express past events with force and interest as if they were present; e. g., “Cæsar *leaves* Gaul, *crosses* the Rubicon, and *enters* Italy.”

REMARK 3.—This tense is sometimes used instead of the Second Present, in speaking of authors long since dead, when reference is made to their works which still exist; e. g., “Virgil *imitates* Homer.”

REMARK 4.—This tense is also used in dependent clauses after such words as when, before, if, as soon as, till, and after relative pronouns, to express the relative time of a future action; e. g., “When the mail *arrives* I shall receive my letter.”

§ 164. The Second Present represents an action as finished in present time; e. g., “Alfred *has recited* this morning;” “Many excellent works *have been written* this century.”

REMARK 1.—This tense cannot be used if the smallest portion of time *has* intervened between that which is assumed as present, and that in which the event took place. It would be incorrect to say, “I have seen him a moment ago.”

REMARK 2.—This tense may be used when we speak of an author long since dead, if the works to which they refer are still in existence; e. g., “Milton *has written* a noble poem.”

REMARK 3.—This tense, as well as the present, is sometimes used in dependent clauses to express a future event; e. g., “When I *have finished* the recitation, I will attend to your request.”

REMARK 4.—This tense is used to express an act or state continued through a period of time reaching to the present; e. g., “Willis *has studied* grammar six months.”

§ 165. The Past Tense expresses what took place in past time; e. g., “In the beginning God *created* the heavens.” “James *wrote* yesterday.”

REMARK 1.—The time expressed by this tense is regarded as entirely past; however near the present may be, it does not embrace it; e. g., “I *saw* James Hampton but a moment ago.”

REMARK 2.—In such expressions, as “*I wrote this morning, this week, this year,*” &c., the reference is to a point of time now entirely past, in these yet unfinished periods.

REMARK 3.—This tense is used to express what was customary in past time; e. g., “*My father attended to his business regularly all his life.*”

§ 166. The Second Past represents an action or event as completed at or before some past time referred to; e. g., “*I had written the letter before James called.*”

§ 167. The Future represents an action or event indefinitely as yet to come; e. g., “*I will write to James.*”

§ 168. The Second Future intimates that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future; e. g., “*I shall have recited before ten.*”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs in the following exercises;—tell the Tense they are made in.

Carthage was founded by Dido. Is Henry confident of success? I shall be queen of May. Has Martha read the book? Sorrow is the common lot of man. William listened attentively. James will have finished the work by noon. Ida was walking in the garden. I hope that Edward will not be rash. The sun will have set when I reach home. There is a lovely cottage on the shore. Do you love country life? Art is long, and time is fleeting. The longest life will soon pass away.

The cataract was in full view. The English language, in common with others, has undergone many changes. Philadelphia is a large commercial city. Matilda will be glad to see you again. Father was going to the plantation when I met him. William Harrison died on the third day of April. The battle of Waterloo occurred in the month of June. Mason's first visit to Columbia was in company with Indians. When the moon appeared, we proceeded. We bow before the good and the wicked at the gates of the righteous.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of verb in the Present tense ; five containing an example of the Second Present ; five containing an example of the Past ; five containing an example of the Second Past ; five containing an example of the Future ; five containing an example of the Second Future.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE TENSES IN THE DIFFERENT MOODS.

REMARK 1.—The Indicative Mood has six tenses.

REMARK 2.—The Subjunctive Mood has the same number of tenses as the Indicative.

(1.) In conditions or suppositions the *past* sometimes refers to present time ; e. g., "If I had paper, I would write to Georgia." In this sense the verb implies that the thing supposed does not exist. The expression, "If I have paper, &c.," leaves it uncertain whether I have it or not.

(2.) The verb *to be*, in the Singular Number has a separate form in expressions of this kind, when reference is made to present time ; e. g., "If I were, &c." The Plural has no separate form.

(3.) Were is sometimes used instead of *would be*, or *should be*, and *had*, when employed as an auxiliary, instead of *would have* ; e. g., "The insti-

tutions of our patriotic sires *were* ruined by demagogues if needed." "Their fortitude had been laudable, had they resisted to arms."

(4.) The past tense of other verbs is sometimes, though not often, the same as *were*.

REMARK 3.—The Potential Mood has four tenses. It wants the future.

(1.) The Present denotes *possibility, permission, ability, or necessity* to perform an act sometimes present, and often future; e. g., "Father may leave *to-day* or *to-morrow*."

NOTE.—Here the *possibility, permission, ability, or necessity*, may be regarded as present, but the performance of the act itself is future.

(2.) The Second Present generally denotes present *possibility, necessity, &c.*, that a past act was performed; e. g., "Father must have left, &c." It is undeniable that he left.

(3.) The Past denotes (a) a past *possibility, &c.*; e. g., "I could write yesterday." (b) It denotes present *possibility, &c.*, when followed by a conditional clause; e. g., "I might go, if I would." (c) It denotes a future *possibility, &c.*; e. g., "I shall not go, but if I should, &c."

(4.) The Second Past denotes usually a past *possibility, &c.*, but by no means a past completed act, as in the indicative; e. g., "I could have gone yesterday, if I had desired."

REMARK 4.—The Imperative Mood has but one tense. It is called Present, but from its nature it also has a reference to the Future.

REMARK 5.—The Infinitive Mood has but two tenses, the Present and Past. The Present denotes an indefinite or progressive state of an act, the Past, an act or state completed; e. g., "*To write*;" "*To be writing*;" "*To have written*;" "*To have been writing*."

(1) The infinitive may be connected with any mood or tense of the principal verb.

(2.) The Present Infinitive denotes a time present with that of the principal verb, but not necessarily present with the speaker; e. g., "I intend *to write*;" "I intended *to write*;" "I had intended *to write*;" "I shall begin *to write*."

(3.) The Past Infinitive denotes a past act completed at the time denoted by the principal verb; e. g., "Miss Emma is said *to have performed* well at the concert; her teacher arranged the music for the occasion."

PARTICIPLES.

§ 169. A Participle is a word used to express an action or state, like the verb; and belongs to a noun like an adjective.

REMARK.—A Participle, like a verb, denotes an action or state; like the verb it is transitive or intransitive; when transitive it is used in the active and passive voices; but it cannot be used to express an affirmation; e. g., "I saw Thomas *studying* his lesson."

NOTE.—The Participle has no more claim to be considered a separate part of speech than the infinitive mood. In a strict etymological sense they are both participles, the one participating of an *adjective* and verb, the other of a *noun* and verb.

CLASSES OF PARTICIPLES.

§ 170. Verbs have three Participles; the *Present*, the *Past*, and the *Compound*; e. g., *Loving*, *loved*, *having loved*, in the Active Voice; and *being loved*, *loved*, *having been loved*, Passive.

§ 171. The Present Participle Active ends always in *ing*. In all verbs it has an active signification, and denotes an action or state as continuing and in progress; e. g., "Uncle is *building* a summer residence on his plantation."

REMARK.—In many verbs the present participle has a passive signification; e. g., "The house was *building* when the accident occurred." This

form of expression is supposed to have had its origin in the use of the verbal noun after *in* to express the same idea; e. g., "Forty and six years was this temple in building." Others again suppose that it ought to be regarded as an original idiom of the language. Recent writers of some distinction have endeavored to introduce the forms, "The house is being built;" "Preparations are being made," but they are by no means adopted by the best writers as good English.

§ 172. The Present Participle Passive has always a passive signification, but it has the same difference of meaning with respect to the time or state of an action as the present indicative passive.

§ 173. The Past Participle has the same form in both voices. In the active voice it belongs equally to transitive and intransitive verbs—has always an active sense, and with the auxiliaries forms the Second Present and Second Past. It is never found but thus combined; e. g., "Has loved," "had loved."

In the Passive Voice, it always has a passive signification, and with the verb *to be* as an auxiliary, forms this voice; e. g., "He *is loved*;" "He *was loved*."

§ 174. The Compound Participle represents an action or state as completed at the time referred to. It has always an active signification in the active voice, and a passive, in the passive voice; e. g., "Having finished our task we may play." "Our task having been finished we may play."

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The Participle in *ing* is often used as a verbal noun having the Nominative and Objective cases. In this character, the participle of a transitive verb may still retain the government of the verb; e. g.,

In keeping his *commandments*, there is great reward."

REMARK 2.—When Participles lay aside the idea of time, and simply qualify nouns, they become adjectives, and as such admit of comparison; e. g., “George related a *most interesting* story to the children.”

NUMBER AND PERSON.

§ 175. Number and Person are forms of the verb which show its agreement with the subject.

§ 176. Every tense of the verb has two Numbers, the Singular and Plural, corresponding to the Singular and Plural of nouns and pronouns. The Singular affirms of one, the Plural of more than one.

§ 177. The subject of the verb, in the first person Singular, is always *I*; in the Plural *we*; in the second person Singular, *thou* or *you*; in the Plural *ye* or *you*; in the third person, the subject is the name of any person or thing spoken of, or a pronoun of the third person in its stead; it may also be an infinitive or clause of a sentence in its stead.

EXERCISES.

Tell the Number and Person of each of the following subjects;—give the Number and Person of each verb.

Did you attend the lecture last evening? I hope to find the study interesting. Robert listened very attentively. Matilda was loved by all. William has read the book you gave him, and would like another. The work mentioned was printed by J. R. Graves of Nashville. Mary will always do what she thinks is right. I hope you will learn to love your teacher better. Have you been taught music? When can we ride over the farm? The “Observer” is published in New York.

Cultivate a love for all that is beautiful. The books that sister sent us are full of instruction. Confide we in ourselves. Laugh those that can, weep those that may. Let us hope for the best. Be it enacted that on and after the first day of January next, &c., &c. Did you see that meteor? What shall we do to-day? Alexander will have learned his lesson by the time we wish to leave. The hills were covered with snow and ice, a strange sight for the season. The boat sailing on yonder lake is propelled by steam.

“Fall he that must beneath his rival’s arm,
And live the rest, secure from harm.”—*Pope*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—In solemn style the second person singular of the verb in the present tense, is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the first. In common style it ends like the second person plural. The third person singular is formed by adding *s* or *es* to the first.

NOTE.—Some languages have a peculiar form for every person in both numbers; in English there are no such separate forms. The second person singular has a form appropriated to itself in all the tenses; the third person singular has a distinct form in the present tense. The present of the verb *to have* retains this form when used as an auxiliary in the second present.

REMARK 2.—The three persons in the plural are always alike, and with the exception of the verb *to be*, the same as the first person singular.

REMARK 3.—The Imperative Mood has usually only the second person; e. g., “Go thou.” In some languages this mood has also a form for the first person plural, and third person singular and plural. A few examples of this sort seem to occur in English; e. g., “Rise, my sons.” “Be it enacted.” Many of these cases can be explained by supplying an ellipsis.

CONJUGATION.

§ 178. The Conjugation of a Verb is the regular arrangement of its voices, moods, tenses, numbers and persons.

FORMS OF THE VERB.

§ 179. Transitive Verbs may have four forms: the *common*, the *emphatic*, the *progressive*, and the *passive*; e. g., “I love;” “I do love;” “I am loving;” “I am loved.”

REMARK.—The emphatic form is confined to the present and past indicative, and the present imperative. The other forms are extended through all the moods and tenses.

§ 180. Intransitive Verbs may have three forms: the *common*, the *emphatic*, and *progressive*; e. g., “I sit;” “I do sit;” “I am sitting.”

§ 181. The Common form represents an act as indefinite, as a custom, or as completed without reference to its progress; e. g., “I paint;” “I painted;” “I have painted.”

§ 182. The Emphatic form is used to express a fact with emphasis or force; e. g., “I do write;” “I did write.”

§ 183. The Progressive form represents an action as begun, in progress, but not completed; e. g., “Mary is writing.”

§ 184. The Passive Voice represents the object as being acted upon by the agent; e. g., “Charles was struck by John.”

REMARK.—To these may be added the solemn form of the third person singular, present indicative, ending in *th* or *eth*, instead of the common in *s* or *es*.

§ 185. The Tenses of the verb, inflected without an auxiliary, are called Simple Tenses, those inflected with an auxiliary, are called Compound Tenses.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

§ 186. The Principal Parts of a verb are the *Present Indicative*, the *Past Indicative*, and the *Past Participle*.

§ 187. A Complete verb is one that has all its principal parts; e. g., *See, saw, seen*.

§ 188. A Defective verb is one that has not all the principal parts; e. g., *May, might; shall, should*.

AUXILIARIES.

§ 189. Auxiliaries are short verbs used in conjugating other verbs. They are *do, be, have, shall, will, may, can, and must*. *Do, be, have, and will* are also principal verbs.

CONJUGATION OF THE AUXILIARIES.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.
<i>I</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They</i>
Pres. Am,	are,	is;	are,	are,	are.
Past. Was,	were,	was;	were,	were,	were.
Pres. Do,	do,	does;	do,	do,	do.
Past. Did,	did,	did;	did,	did,	did.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.	1st Per.	2d Per.	3d Per.
<i>I</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>He</i>	<i>We</i>	<i>You</i>	<i>They</i>
Pres. Have,	have,	has;	have,	have,	have.
Past. Had,	had,	had;	had,	had,	had.
Pres. Will,	will,	will;	will,	will,	will.
Past. Would,	would,	would;	would,	would,	would.
Pres. Shall,	shall,	shall;	shall,	shall,	shall.
Past. Should,	should,	should;	should,	should,	should.
Pres. May,	may,	may;	may,	may,	may.
Past. Might,	might,	might;	might,	might,	might.
Pres. Can,	can,	can;	can,	can,	can.
Past. Could,	could,	could;	could,	could,	could.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The auxiliary *do* is sometimes added to verbs to express energy or positiveness; e. g., “*I do love.*” It is also used in negative and interrogative sentences without emphasis.

REMARK 2.—The verb *to be*, when used as an auxiliary, connects the participle with the subject. It gives no shade of meaning to the participle, it only does what simple inflection would do if it could be employed.

REMARK 3.—The use of *have* as an auxiliary probably originated in its being used to express the possession of something represented as the object of an action denoted by the participle; e. g., “*I have money concealed.*” By degrees the idea of possession has been dropped, and the signification of the participle changed from the passive to the active.

REMARK 4.—*Shall* and *will* have two significations: a primary, and secondary. *Shall*, primarily denotes obligation; e. g., “*You shall do it,*” — You are under obligation to do it. *Will*, primarily denotes *volition*, in-

clination, purpose, determination; e. g., "He *will* go," — He is determined to go.

In the present use of these auxiliaries,

(1.) *Shall* and *will* denote a present *resolution, volition, inclination, determination, promise, or purpose* with reference to a future act; e. g., "I resolve that he *shall* write;" "I *will* write."

(2.) They denote simple futurity; e. g., "It *will* rain shortly, and we *shall* be overtaken in the storm."

REMARK 5.—It would be a mistake to suppose, as is sometimes done, that the Auxiliaries are mere inventions, introduced into the language for the purpose of making out the necessary forms. There is abundant evidence showing that originally they were independent verbs; and that the verbs following them were in the infinitive mood, *to* being understood. The verb *shall* meant originally "to be obliged;" and was followed by an infinitive. "They shall to do it," meant, "They are obliged to do it." The sign of the infinitive *to* was omitted, just as it is now after many other verbs; e. g., "They need not (to) do it." "I saw him (to) do it." In like manner all the compound tenses may be analyzed. This analysis, and the study of the proper force of the auxiliaries by themselves, is important, as affording the best clue to the true meaning and use of the various moods and tenses.

On the other hand, it would be a mistake, because the compound forms may be analyzed, and traced to original independent elements, to deny their present existence as compounds, and assert, as some grammarians have done recently, that there are but two tenses in English, the *Present* and the *Past*. Their object is simplification; at first sight they seem to have accomplished this purpose, for apparently they despatch the whole verb—mood, tenses, and all—in a single sweeping paragraph. But in the end they leave the pupil more to learn, in detached and unconnected parcels, than he had under the systematic and orderly arrangement of former writers. They give him the simplicity of the monosyllabic Chinese, in exchange for the more complex forms and combination of the Greek

CONJUGATION OF THE REGULAR VERB "TO LOVE."

ACTIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, *Love* ; Past, *Loved* ; Past Participle, *Loved*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I love,	1. We love,
2. You love,*	2. You love,
3. He loves;	3. They love.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I loved,	1. We loved,
2. You loved,	2. You loved,
3. He loved;	3. They loved.

Future Tense.

Signs—*shall* or † *will*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall or will love,	1. We shall or will love,
2. You shall or will love,	2. You shall or will love,
3. He shall or will love;	3. They shall or will love.

Second Present.

Sign—*have*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have loved,	1. We have loved,
2. You have loved,	2. You have loved,
3. He has loved;	3. They have loved.

* The pronoun *you* represents nouns either of the singular or plural number, but requires the verb to be in the plural number.

† The pupil should be accustomed to use either auxiliary.

Second Past.

Sign—*had*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had loved,	1. We had loved,
2. You had loved,	2. You had loved,
3. He had loved ;	3. They had loved.


Second Future.

Signs—*shall* or *will have*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have loved,	1. We shall have loved,
2. You shall have loved,	2. You shall have loved,
3. He shall have loved ;	3. They shall have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

REMARK.—This mood is the same as the Indicative, except that it is preceded by a conjunction implying contingency ; e. g., “*If I love.*”

 In the Future the auxiliary is often omitted ; e. g., “*If James write, I will come.*”

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I love,	1. If we love,
2. If you love,	2. If you love,
3. If he loves ;	3. If they love.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I loved,	1. If we loved,
2. If you loved,	2. If you loved,
3. If he loved ;	3. If they loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I shall love,	1. If we shall love,
2. If you shall love,	2. If you shall love,
3. If he shall love;	3. If they shall love.

Second Present.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I have loved,	1. If we have loved,
2. If you have loved,	2. If you have loved,
3. If he has loved;	3. If they have loved.

Second Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I had loved,	1. If we had loved,
2. If you had loved,	2. If you had loved,
3. If he had loved;	3. If they had loved.

Second Future.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I shall have loved,	1. If we shall have loved,
2. If you shall have loved,	2. If you shall have loved,
3. If he shall have loved;	3. If they shall have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.*Signs—*may, can, or must.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may love,	1. We may love,
2. You may love,	2. You may love,
3. He may love;	3. They may love.

*Past Tense.*Signs—*might, could, would, or should.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might love,	1. We might love,
2. You might love,	2. You might love,
3. He might love ;	3. They might love.

*Second Present.*Signs—*may, can, or must have.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have loved,	1. We may have loved,
2. You may have loved,	2. You may have loved,
3. He may have loved ;	3. They may have loved.

*Second Past.*Signs—*might, could, would, or should.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have loved,	1. We might have loved,
2. You might have loved,	2. You might have loved,
3. He might have loved ;	3. They might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
2. Love, or Love you ;	2. Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To love.
<i>Past.</i>	To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Loving.
<i>Past.</i>	Loved.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having loved.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I love.
<i>Past.</i>	I loved.
<i>Future.</i>	I shall love.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I have loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I had loved.
<i>Second Future.</i>	I shall have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	If I love.
<i>Past.</i>	If I loved.
<i>Future.</i>	If I shall love.
<i>Second Present.</i>	If I have loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	If I had loved.
<i>Second Future.</i>	If I shall have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I may love.
<i>Past.</i>	I might love.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I may have loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Love, or Love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To love.
<i>Past.</i>	To have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Loving.
<i>Past.</i>	Loved.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having loved.

EXERCISES.

Give the Mood, Tense, Person and Number, of the Verbs in the following exercises :

MODEL.—“You love.” It is made in the Indicative Present, Second Singular or Plural.

“He loves.” It is made in the Indicative Present, Third, Singular.

We love. I loved. You have loved. He loves. We have loved. I will love. They have loved. You shall have loved. He may love. If I love. If I loved. If I shall love. You love. Love. To love. He may love. We had loved. If you love. You have loved. He could have loved. If I may love. We can love. We should love. I can love. You loved. He will love. Loved. Loving. To have loved. Having loved. Would you love? You should love. He has loved. They will love. We had loved. We love. I have loved. He had loved. If he will love. You loved. If he has loved. We might have loved.

QUESTIONS.

What is the Conjugation of a Verb?

How many forms have verbs in the Active Voice?

What is said of the auxiliary *Do*?

What are the principal parts of the verb Love?

Give a Synopsis of the Tenses of the Indicative.

—— of the Subjunctive.

—— of the Potential.

Give the Imperative.

What is the Present Infinitive?

—— the Present Participle?

—— the Past? The Compound?

CONJUGATION OF THE IRREGULAR VERB "TO BE."

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, *Am* ; Past, *Was* ; Past Participle, *Been*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I am,	1. We are,
2. You are,	2. You are,
3. He is ;	3. They are.

Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I was,	1. We were,
2. You were,	2. You were,
3. He was ;	3. They were.

Future Tense.

Signs—*shall* or *will*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall be,	1. We shall be,
2. You shall be,	2. You shall be,
3. He shall be ;	3. They shall be.

Second Present.

Sign—*have*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I have been,	1. We have been,
2. You have been,	2. You have been,
3. He has been ;	3. They have been.

Second Past.

Sign—*had*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I had been,	1. We had been,
2. You had been,	2. You had been,
3. He had been ;	3. They had been.

Second Future.

Signs—*shall* or *will have*.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I shall have been,	1. We shall have been,
2. You shall have been,	2. You shall have been,
3. He shall have been;	3. They shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I am,	1. If we are,
2. If you are,	2. If you are,
3. If he is;	3. If they are.

Ancient Present.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I be,	1. If we be,
2. If thou be,	2. If you be,
3. If he be;	3. If they be.


Past Tense.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I was,	1. If we were,
2. If you were,	2. If you were,
3. If he was;	3. If they were.

Hypothetical.

Singular.	Plural.
1. If I were,	1. If we were,
2. If you were,	2. If you were,
3. If he were;	3. If they were.

REMARK.—This form is still used by many good writers to express a supposition or hypothesis, but is gradually going into disuse.

 The remaining tenses of this mood are the same as the Indicative, with a conjunction implying contingency prefixed; e. g., "*If he shall be loved.*"

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Signs—*may, can, or must.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may be,	1. We may be,
2. You may be,	2. You may be,
3. He may be;	3. They may be.

Past Tense.

Signs—*might, could, would, or should.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might be,	1. We might be,
2. You might be,	2. You might be.
3. He might be;	3. They might be.

Second Present.

Signs—*may, can, or must have.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I may have been,	1. We may have been,
2. You may have been,	2. You may have been,
3. He may have been;	3. They may have been.

Second Past.

Signs—*might, could, would, or should have.*

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have been,	1. We might have been,
2. You might have been,	2. You might have been,
3. He might have been;	3. They might have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
2. Be, or Be you.	2. Be, or Be you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To be.
<i>Past.</i>	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being.
<i>Past.</i>	Been.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I am.
<i>Past.</i>	I was.
<i>Future.</i>	I shall be.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I have been.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I had been.
<i>Second Future.</i>	I shall have been.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	If I am.
<i>Past.</i>	If I was.
<i>Future.</i>	If I shall be.
<i>Second Present.</i>	If I have been.
<i>Second Past.</i>	If I had been.
<i>Second Future.</i>	If I shall have been.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I may be.
<i>Past.</i>	I might be.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I may have been.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I might have been.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be, *or* Be you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To be.
<i>Past.</i>	To have been.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being.
<i>Past.</i>	Been.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been.

EXERCISES.

Give the Mood, Tense, Person and Number of the Verbs in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“He is.” It is made in the Indicative Present, Third Singular.

I am. I was. He is. We were. They are. You have been. He has been. They have been. They will have been. He was. You had been. I shall have been. You may be. He must be. If I am. If I have been. You could be. He might have been. He may have been. Be. To be. Being. To have been. I will be. If they be. He must have been. If I be.

QUESTIONS.

What are the principal parts of *to be*?

Give a Synopsis of the Tenses of the Indicative.

—— Subjunctive. Potential.

What is the Imperative Mood?

—— the Infinitive Present?

—— Past? Present Participle?

—— the Past? The Compound?

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB "TO LOVE."

PASSIVE VOICE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Present, *Am loved* ; Past, *Was loved* ; Past Participle, *Loved*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I am loved, | 1. We are loved, |
| 2. You are loved, | 2. You are loved, |
| 3. He is loved ; | 3. They are loved. |

Past Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was loved, | 1. We were loved, |
| 2. You were loved, | 2. You were loved, |
| 3. He was loved ; | 3. They were loved. |

Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I shall be loved, | 1. We shall be loved, |
| 2. You shall be loved, | 2. You shall be loved, |
| 3. He shall be loved ; | 3. They shall be loved. |

Second Present.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved, | 1. We have been loved, |
| 2. You have been loved, | 2. You have been loved, |
| 3. He has been loved ; | 3. They have been loved. |

Second Past.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved, | 1. We had been loved, |
| 2. You had been loved, | 2. You had been loved, |
| 3. He had been loved ; | 3. They had been loved. |

Second Future.

Singular.

1. I shall have been loved,
2. You shall have been loved,
3. He shall have been loved ;

Plural.

1. We shall have been loved,
2. You shall have been loved,
3. They shall have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If I am loved,
2. If you are loved,
3. If he is loved ;

Plural.

1. If we are loved,
2. If you are loved,
3. If they are loved.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I was loved,
2. If you were loved,
3. If he was loved ;

Plural.

1. If we were loved,
2. If you were loved,
3. If they were loved.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall be loved,
2. If you shall be loved,
3. If he shall be loved ;

Plural.

1. If we shall be loved,
2. If you shall be loved,
3. If they shall be loved.

Second Present.

Singular.

1. If I have been loved,
2. If you have been loved,
3. If he has been loved ;

Plural.

1. If we have been loved,
2. If you have been loved,
3. If they have been loved.

Second Past.

Singular.

1. If I had been loved,
2. If you had been loved,
3. If he had been loved ;

Plural.

1. If we had been loved,
2. If you had been loved,
3. If they had been loved.

Second Future.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1. If I shall have been loved, | 1. If we shall have been loved, |
| 2. If you shall have been loved, | 2. If you shall have been loved, |
| 3. If he shall have been loved ; | 3. If they shall have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved, | 1. We may be loved, |
| 2. You may be loved, | 2. You may be loved, |
| 3. He may be loved ; | 3. They may be loved |

Past Tense.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved, | 1. We might be loved, |
| 2. You might be loved, | 2. You might be loved, |
| 3. He might be loved ; | 3. They might be loved. |

Second Present.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved, | 1. We may have been loved, |
| 2. You may have been loved, | 2. You may have been loved, |
| 3. He may have been loved ; | 3. They may have been loved. |

Second Past.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved, | 1. We might have been loved, |
| 2. You might have been loved, | 2. You might have been loved, |
| 3. He might have been loved ; | 3. They might have been loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

- | Singular. | Plural. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> Be you loved. | 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> Be you loved. |

INFINITIVE MOOD.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------|
| <i>Present.</i> | To be loved. |
| <i>Past.</i> | To have been loved. |

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being loved.
<i>Past.</i>	Loved.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been loved.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I am loved.
<i>Past.</i>	I was loved.
<i>Future.</i>	I shall be loved.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I have been loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I had been loved.
<i>Second Future.</i>	I shall have been loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	If I am loved.
<i>Past.</i>	If I was loved.
<i>Future.</i>	If I shall be loved.
<i>Second Present.</i>	If I have been loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	If I had been loved.
<i>Second Future.</i>	If I shall have been loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I may be loved.
<i>Past.</i>	I might be loved.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I may have been loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I might have been loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be loved, or Be you loved.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To be loved.
<i>Past.</i>	To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Being loved.
<i>Past.</i>	Loved.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been loved.

EXERCISES.

Give the Mood, Tense, Person and Number, of the Verbs in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“I was loved.” It is made in the Indicative Past, First Singular.

I am loved. You have been loved. He shall be loved. We were loved. You are loved. You had been loved. They shall have been loved. They are loved. If he has been loved. He shall be loved. You might be loved. He may be loved. You can be loved. They may be loved. He could have been loved. Be you loved. I was loved. To be loved. Being loved. You are loved. Be loved. To have been loved. Having been loved. If you were loved. They might be loved.

QUESTIONS.

What are the principal parts of the verb *to be loved*?

Give a Synopsis of the Tenses of the Indicative.

—— the Subjunctive. —— the Potential.

Give the Imperative.

—— the Present Infinitive.

—— the Past Infinitive.

What is the Present Participle?

—— the Past? —— the Compound?

Give the Indicative Present, Second Singular.

—— the Past. —— the Future.

—— the Second Present. —— Second Past.

—— Second Future, &c., &c.

PROGRESSIVE FORM.

§ 190. The Progressive Form of the Verb is inflected by prefixing the verb *to be*, through all its moods and tenses, to the Present Participle.

TO WRITE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE SIMPLE VERB.

Present, *Write* ; Past, *Wrote* ; Past Participle, *Written*.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I am writing,
2. You are writing,
3. He is writing

Plural.

1. We are writing,
2. You are writing,
3. They are writing.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I was writing,
2. You were writing,
3. He was writing ;

Plural.

1. We were writing,
2. You were writing,
3. They were writing.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. I shall be writing,
2. You shall be writing,
3. He shall be writing ;

Plural.

1. We shall be writing,
2. You shall be writing,
3. They shall be writing.

Second Present.

Singular.

1. I have been writing,
2. You have been writing,
3. He has been writing ;

Plural.

1. We have been writing,
2. You have been writing,
3. They have been writing.

Second Past.

Singular.

1. I had been writing,
2. You had been writing,
3. He had been writing;

Plural.

1. We had been writing,
2. You had been writing,
3. They had been writing.

Second Future.

Singular.

1. I shall have been writing,
2. You shall have been writing,
3. He shall have been writing;

Plural.

1. We shall have been writing,
2. You shall have been writing,
3. They shall have been writing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. If am writing,
2. If you are writing,
3. If he is writing;

Plural.

1. If we are writing,
2. If you are writing,
3. If they are writing.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. If I was writing,
2. If you were writing,
3. If he was writing;

Plural.

1. If we were writing,
2. If you were writing,
3. If they were writing.

Future Tense.

Singular.

1. If I shall be writing,
2. If you shall be writing,
3. If he shall be writing;

Plural.

1. If we shall be writing,
2. If you shall be writing,
3. If they shall be writing.

Second Present.

Singular.

1. If I have been writing,
2. If you have been writing,
3. If he has been writing;

Plural.

1. If we have been writing,
2. If you have been writing,
3. If they have been writing.

Second Past.

Singular.

1. If I had been writing,
2. If you had been writing,
3. If he had been writing;

Plural.

1. If we had been writing,
2. If you had been writing,
3. If they had been writing.

Second Future.

Singular.

1. If I shall have been writing,
2. If you shall have been writing,
3. If he shall have been writing;

Plural.

1. If we shall have been writing,
2. If you shall have been writing,
3. If they shall have been writing.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

Singular.

1. I may be writing,
2. You may be writing,
3. He may be writing;

Plural.

1. We may be writing,
2. You may be writing,
3. They may be writing.

Past Tense.

Singular.

1. I might be writing,
2. You might be writing,
3. He might be writing;

Plural.

1. We might be writing,
2. You might be writing,
3. They might be writing.

Second Present.

Singular.

1. I may have been writing,
2. You may have been writing,
3. He may have been writing;

Plural.

1. We may have been writing,
2. You may have been writing,
3. They may have been writing.

Second Past.

Singular.	Plural.
1. I might have been writing,	1. We might have been writing,
2. You might have been writing,	2. You might have been writing,
3. He might have been writing;	3. They might have been writing.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Singular.	Plural.
2. Be you writing.	2. Be you writing.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To be writing.
<i>Past.</i>	To have been writing.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Writing.
<i>Past.</i>	_____.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been writing.

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I am writing.
<i>Past.</i>	I was writing.
<i>Future.</i>	I shall be writing.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I have been writing.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I had been writing.
<i>Second Future.</i>	I shall have been writing.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	If I am writing.
<i>Past.</i>	If I was writing.
<i>Future.</i>	If I shall be writing.

<i>Second Present.</i>	If I have been writing.
<i>Second Past.</i>	If I had been writing.
<i>Second Future.</i>	If I shall have been writing.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I may be writing.
<i>Past.</i>	I might be writing.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I may have been writing.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I might have been writing.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be you writing.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	To be writing.
<i>Past.</i>	To have been writing.

PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i>	Writing.
<i>Past.</i>	———.
<i>Compound.</i>	Having been writing.

INTERROGATIVE AND NEGATIVE FORMS.

§ 191. A verb is conjugated *interrogatively* by placing the subject after it, or the first auxiliary ; e. g., “ Lovest thou ? ” “ Do I love ? ”

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	Do I love ?
<i>Past.</i>	Did I love ?
<i>Future.</i>	Shall I love ?

<i>Second Present.</i>	Have I loved ?
<i>Second Past.</i>	Had I loved ?
<i>Second Future.</i>	Shall I have loved ?

POTENTIAL MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	May I love ?
<i>Past.</i>	Might I love ?
<i>Second Present.</i>	May I have loved ?
<i>Second Past.</i>	Might I have loved ?

REMARK.—The subjunctive, imperative, infinitive, and participles, can not have the interrogative form.

§ 192. A verb is conjugated *negatively*, by placing the adverb *not* after it, or after the first auxiliary. The negative adverb should be placed before the infinitive and participles ; e. g., “ *I love not ;*” or “ *I do not love.*”

SYNOPSIS.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	I do not love.
<i>Past.</i>	I did not love.
<i>Future.</i>	I will not love.
<i>Second Present.</i>	I have not loved.
<i>Second Past.</i>	I had not loved.
<i>Second Future.</i>	I shall not have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i>	If I do not love.
<i>Past.</i>	If I did not love.
<i>Future.</i>	If I shall not love.

Second Present. If I have not loved.

Second Past. If I had not loved.

Second Future. If I shall not have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present. I can not love.

Past. I might not love.

Second Present. I may not have loved.

Second Past. I might not have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Love not, or Do you not love.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. Not to love.

Past. Not to have loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Not loving.

Past. Not loved.

Compound. Not having loved.

REMARK.—The simple form is seldom used with the negative. In the present and past tenses the compound or emphatic form is more common.

FORMATION OF THE TENSES.

§ 193. A Verb consists of two parts ;—the *Root*, and *Prefix*.

§ 194. There are also two special roots, from which, by the addition of certain prefixes, the verb is regularly formed.

REMARK.—The title “Formation of the Tenses” relates only to the *first* person singular.

§ 195. The First Root is the simple form of the verb, and is always the same as the First Person Singular of the Indicative Present; e. g., *Love, paint.*

§ 196. The Second Root is formed from the first by the addition of *d* when it ends in a vowel, and *ed* when a consonant; e. g., *Love, loved; paint, painted.*

REMARK.—In Regular Verbs the Second Root is always the same as the Indicative Past; in Irregular Verbs the Second Root must be learned from the list. It is always the same as the Past Participle.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

§ 197. The Indicative Present is the First Root; e. g., *Love, paint.*

§ 198. The Indicative Past is the Second Root; e. g., *Loved, painted.*

REMARK.—In Irregular Verbs this tense must be learned from the list.

§ 199. The Future is formed by prefixing its sign *shall* or *will* to the First Root; e. g., *Love, shall or will love.*

§ 200. The Second Present is formed by prefixing its sign *have* to the Second Root; e. g., *Loved; have loved.*

§ 201. The Second Past is formed by prefixing its sign *had* to the Second Root; e. g., *Loved; had loved.*

§ 202. The Second Future is formed by prefixing its sign *shall* or *will have* to the Second Root; e. g., *Loved; shall or will have loved.*

REMARK.—In the formation of the second tenses, the auxiliary prefix denotes the time of the action;—the root, its completion.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 203. The tenses of the Subjunctive are the same as the Indicative; but they are always preceded by a conjunction implying contingency; e. g., *If I love, If I have loved, &c., &c.*

REMARK.—In the Future the auxiliary is often omitted; e. g., “*If I love,*” that is, “*If I shall love.*”

POTENTIAL MOOD.

§ 204. The Present is formed by prefixing its sign *may, can, or must*, to the First Root; e. g., Love; *may love.*

§ 205. The Past is formed by prefixing its sign *might, could, would, or should* to the First Root; e. g., Love; *might love.*

§ 206. The Second Present is formed by prefixing its sign *may, can, or must have* to the Second Root; e. g., Loved; *may have loved.*

§ 207. The Second Past is formed by prefixing its sign *might, could, would, or should have* to the Second Root; e. g., Loved; *might have loved.*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

§ 208. This Mood is always the same as the First Root; e. g., *Love.*

INFINITIVE MOOD.

§ 209. The Present is formed by prefixing its sign *to* to the First Root; e. g., Love; *to love.*

§ 210. The Past is formed by prefixing its sign *to have* to the Second Root; e. g., Loved; *to have loved.*

PARTICIPLES.

§ 211. The Present Participle is formed by annexing *ing* to the last consonant of the First Root; e. g., Love; *loving*.

§ 212. The Past Participle is the same as the Second Root; e. g., *Loved*.

§ 213. The Compound Participle is formed by prefixing its sign *having* to the Second Root; e. g., *Loved*; *having loved*.

PASSIVE VOICE.

§ 214. The Tenses of this Voice are formed by annexing the Second Root to the verb *to be* in all its moods, tenses, numbers and persons.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Verbs;—tell whether regular or irregular, transitive or intransitive; give the Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number and Formation.

MODEL.—“God created the world.” “*Created*” is a verb, regular, transitive; it is made in the active voice, indicative past, third singular. It is formed from the first root by annexing *d*; create, *created*.

Pupils should be taught to parse correctly. Much depends on starting right. What part of speech is man? Minnie has written her composition. Thomas is walking in the garden. Messrs. Shields and Smith have dissolved partnership. Charles has carefully prepared his recitation. We were astonished at the intelligence of the lad. To command and obey are different things. I might have been vexed at the time. Eloquence is to be looked for only in free states. Liberty is the nurse of true genius, it animates the spirit, and invigorates the

hopes of man; it excites honorable emulation, and a desire to excel in every art. Go, instruct and reclaim the ignorant.

An orator should not put forth all his strength at the beginning, but should rise, and grow upon us as his discourse advances. Passionate reproofs are like medicine given scalding hot. The force of language consists in raising complete images, which have the effect to transport the reader, as by magic, into the very place of the important action, and to convert him, as it were, into a spectator, beholding every thing that passes. The freedom of choice is essential to happiness; because, that is not our own which is imposed upon us.

In the following exercises change the verb to the past, future, second present, second past, second future.

MODEL.—“We think differently on the subject.” “We thought differently on the subject,” “We will think,” &c.

Robert owns the book. I know all the particulars. We depend on your assistance. Mary is finishing the screen. John is going to town. It is growing late. William submits like a good fellow. The woodman is cutting down the tree. Jane is doing the work. Boys love play. The general commands the army. I believe what John told me. Teachers like diligent pupils. Important events have occurred in this country. William saw it before John. Irving wrote the history of Christopher Columbus, the discoverer of America. Men worship God. Industry is conducive to contentment. Pupils recite lessons. Anger promotes hatred. Physicians cure the sick. Mother esteems her friends. Your orchard produces fine fruit. William the Conqueror defeats Harold.

Samuel's father lives in the city of New York. Spenser the poet lived in England. Sister Phebe paints flowers for the children. William's dog caught the thief breaking into the house. We inhabit a most beautiful country. The king's

resignation astonished the world. Father doubts the man's integrity. The good of the country was regarded by the citizens. The officers were chosen by the little band.

Correct the errors in the following sentences, and give the rule.

MODEL.—“The wind has blew down the corn.”

CORRECTED.—“The wind has *blown* down the corn.”—The second tenses prefix the auxiliary sign to the second root.

Robert and William have did the task. The sun had arose before we left. Sister Mary has saw my new silk. The gentleman that purchased a ticket has drew a blank. My brother has came from Charleston. Have you broke William's knife? Henry has tore his book. The child was forsook by its parents. Having slew the enemy they returned. The bank was broke open last night. The package was stole from the car. The bird had flew to its nest. The dog was give away before we came. Miss Amanda has grew very tall. He begun well but did not continue as he began. After the letter had came, I found that it was badly wrote, that it could not be read. A sad misfortune has befall him. The cattle were drove to the pasture this morning.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing a Verb,—

1. Give the part of speech, (why?)
2. Tell whether it is regular or irregular, (why?)
3. Transitive or intransitive, (why?)
4. Principal parts.
5. Tell the voice and form, (why?)
6. Mood, (why?)

7. Tense, (why?)
8. Person, (why?)
9. Number, (why?)
10. Construction and rule.

REMARK.—If the verb is in the infinitive, instead of giving the number, person, and inflection, give the construction and the rule. If the form is a participle, tell what kind, conjugate the verb from which it is derived, give the construction and rule.

EXERCISES.

Parse the Verbs in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“Piety promotes happiness.” “*Promotes*” is a Verb, Regular, Transitive. *Present* promote, *Past* promoted, *Past Part.* promoted. It is made in the Active Voice, Indicative Present, Third Singular, and agrees with its subject “*Piety*,” according to

RULE II.—A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

“Sallie can play with Hettie.” “*Can play*” is a Verb, Regular, Intransitive. *Present* play, *Past* played, *Past Part.* played. It is made in the Potential Present, Third Singular, and agrees with its subject, “*Sallie*” according to

RULE II.—A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

“America was discovered by Columbus.” “*Was discovered*” is a Verb, Regular, Transitive. *Present* discover, *Past* discovered, *Past Part.* discovered. It is made in the Passive Voice, Indicative Present, Third Singular, and agrees with its subject, “*America*,” according to

RULE II.—A verb must agree with its subject in number and person.

“I love to see a pleasant day.” “*To see*” is a Verb, Irregular, Transitive. *Present* see, *Past* saw, *Past Part.* seen. It is made in the Infinitive Present, and limits the verb *love* according to

RULE XII.—The Infinitive Mood is used to limit a verb, noun, or adjective.

“John is reading the book his sister gave him.” “*Is reading*” is a Verb, Irregular, Transitive, Progressive Form. *Present* read, *Past* read,

Past Part. read. It is made in the Active Voice, Indicative Present, Third Singular, and agrees with its subject "*John*" according to

RULE II.—A verb must agree, &c., &c.

"Has Samuel come?" "*Has come*" is a Verb, Irregular, Intransitive (conjugated interrogatively,) &c., &c.

Robert found the knife on the floor. The orchard bears fine fruit. Paradise Lost was written by Milton. Mary loves to tell the truth. Did you lose your umbrella yesterday? If you wish to go I will accompany you. Do you expect to visit home soon? The fox was concealed in the tree, and could not be found. The retreat of the Greeks was conducted very skillfully. The plot was discovered before it was consummated. That book was written by my friend. Be advised by your friends I should not be surprised to find James there. Determine to perform what you undertake. I hope to hear from home when the mail arrives.

I shall be compelled to leave shortly. You will be sick, if you eat that fruit. Robert might have improved, if he would. Take heed, lest any man deceive you. The birds are singing sweetly in the field near the woods. This letter was written by George. Having been elected to the office, he will enter upon its duties in a few days. Maggie was found reading in the parlor. Man beholds the twinkling stars adorning night's blue arch. She lives, loving all, and loved by all. Your horse steps lightly; he is a remarkably fine animal, and can pace very fast.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 215. An Irregular Verb is one that does not form its second root by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the first; e. g., Begin, *begun*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Regular verbs form their second root by the addition of *d* when the verb ends in a vowel, and *ed* when a consonant. The final consonant of the verb is sometimes doubled (as in *dropped*) and final *y* changed into *i* (as in *cried*) according to the rules of spelling in such cases. The verb *to hear* adds *d* to *r*, and is therefore irregular.

REMARK 2.—When the verb ends in a sharp consonant, *t* is sometimes improperly substituted for *ed*, making the Past and Past Participle Irregular in spelling when they are not so in sound, as *distrest* for distressed. In such cases the regular orthography is preferable.

REMARK 3.—When the verb ends with a smooth consonant, the substitution of *t* for *ed* produces an irregularity in sound as well as in writing. Poets may be indulged in such irregularities, but they are inadmissible in good writers and speakers.

REMARK 4.—The simple irregular verbs in English are about one hundred and ten, and are nearly all monosyllables. They are derived from the Saxon, and for the most part are also irregular in that language. They might be embraced in some five or six conjugations, distinguished by some change or modification of the vowel in the formation of the second root, but such a division would be of little practical utility.

A LIST OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS.

Verbs marked *r* admit of a regular form.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Abide,	Abode,	Abode.
Am,	Was,	Been.
Awake,	Awoke, (<i>r</i> .)	Awaked.
Bear (to bring forth),	Bore,	Born.
Bear (to carry),	Bore,	Borne.
Begin,	Began,	Begun.
Bend,	Bent,	Bent.
Bereave,	Bereft, (<i>r</i> .)	Bereft. (<i>r</i> .)
Beseech,	Besought,	Besought.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Bid,	Bid <i>or</i> Bade,	Bidden.
Bind,	Bound,	Bound.
Bite,	Bit,	Bitten <i>or</i> Bit.
Bleed,	Bled,	Bled.
Blow,	Blew,	Blown.
Break,	Broke,	Broken.
Breed,	Bred,	Bred.
Bring,	Brought,	Brought.
Build,	Built,	Built.
Burst,	Burst,	Burst.
Buy,	Bought,	Bought.
Cast,	Cast,	Cast.
Catch,	Caught,	Caught.
Chide,	Chid,	Chidden <i>or</i> Chid.
Choose,	Chose,	Chosen.
Cleave (to stick), <i>r.</i> ,		
Cleave (to split),	Clove <i>or</i> Cleft,	Cleft <i>or</i> Cloven.
Cling,	Clung,	Clung.
Clothe,	Clothed,	Clad. (<i>r.</i>)
Come,	Came,	Come.
Cost,	Cost,	Cost.
Crow,	Crew, (<i>r.</i>)	Crowed.
Creep,	Crept,	Crept.
Cut,	Cut,	Cut.
Dare (to venture),	Durst,	Durst.
Dare (to challenge), <i>r.</i> ,		
Deal,	Dealt, (<i>r.</i>)	Dealt. (<i>r.</i>)
Dig,	Dug, (<i>r.</i>)	Dug. (<i>r.</i>)
Do,	Did,	Done.
Draw,	Drew,	Drawn.
Drive,	Drove,	Driven.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Drink,	Drank,	Drunk.
Dwell,	Dwelt, (<i>r.</i>)	Dwelt. (<i>r.</i>)
Eat,	Eat <i>or</i> Ate,	Eaten.
Fall,	Fell,	Fallen.
Feed,	Fed,	Fed.
Feel,	Felt,	Felt.
Fight,	Fought,	Fought.
Find,	Found,	Found.
Flee,	Fled,	Fled.
Fling,	Flung,	Flung.
Fly,	Flew,	Flown.
Forget,	Forgot,	Forgotten <i>or</i> Forgot.
Forsake,	Forsook,	Forsaken.
Freeze,	Froze,	Frozen.
Get,	Got,	Got.
Gild,	Gilt, (<i>r.</i>)	Gilt. (<i>r.</i>)
Gird,	Girt, (<i>r.</i>)	Girt. (<i>r.</i>)
Give,	Gave,	Given.
Go,	Went,	Gone.
Grave,	Graved,	Graven.
Grind,	Ground,	Ground.
Grow,	Grew,	Grown.
Have,	Had,	Had.
Hang,	Hung,	Hung.
Hear,	Heard,	Heard.
Hew,	Hewed,	Hewn. (<i>r.</i>)
Hide,	Hid,	Hidden <i>or</i> Hid.
Hit,	Hit,	Hit.
Hold,	Held,	Held.
Hurt,	Hurt,	Hurt.
Keep,	Kcpt,	Kept.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Knit,	Knit,	Knit.
Kneel,	Knelt, (<i>r.</i>)	Knelt. (<i>r.</i>)
Know,	Knew,	Known.
Lade,	Laded,	Laden.
Lay,	Laid,	Laid.
Lead,	Led,	Led.
Leave,	Left,	Left.
Lend,	Lent,	Lent.
Lie (to lie down),	Lay,	Lain.
Load,	Loaded,	Laden.
Lose,	Lost,	Lost.
Make,	Made,	Made.
Mean,	Meant,	Meant
Meet,	Met,	Met.
Mow,	Mowed,	Mown. (<i>r.</i>)
Pay,	Paid,	Paid.
Pen (to enclose),	Pent, (<i>r.</i>)	Pent. (<i>r.</i>)
Put,	Put,	Put.
Read,	Read,	Read.
Rid,	Rid,	Rid.
Rend,	Rent,	Rent.
Ride,	Rode,	Ridden or Rid.
Ring,	Rung,	Rung.
Rise,	Rose,	Risen.
Rive,	Rived,	Riven.
Run,	Ran,	Run.
Saw,	Sawed,	Sawn.
Say,	Said,	Said.
See,	Saw,	Seen.
Seek,	Sought,	Sought.
Sell,	Sold,	Sold.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
Send.	Sent,	Sent.
Set,	Set,	Set.
Shake,	Shook,	Shaken.
Shape,	Shaped,	Shaped <i>or</i> Shapen.
Shave,	Shaved,	Shaven. (<i>r.</i>)
Shear,	Sheared,	Shorn. (<i>r.</i>)
Shed,	Shed,	Shed.
Show,	Showed,	Shown. (<i>r.</i>)
Shine,	Shone, (<i>r.</i>)	Shone. (<i>r.</i>)
Shoe,	Shod,	Shod.
Shoot,	Shot,	Shot.
Shrink,	Shrunk <i>or</i> Shrank,	Shrunk.
Shred,	Shred,	Shred.
Shut.	Shut,	Shut.
Sing,	Sung <i>or</i> Sang,	Sung.
Slink,	Slunk,	Slunk.
Slit,	Slit,	Slit. (<i>r.</i>)
Smite,	Smote,	Smitten.
Sow,	Sowed,	Sown.
Speak,	Spoke,	Spoken.
Speed,	Sped,	Sped.
Spill,	Spilt,	Spilt.
Spread,	Spread,	Spread.
Spring,	Sprung <i>or</i> Sprang,	Sprung.
Stand,	Stood,	Stood.
Steal,	Stole,	Stolen.
Stick,	Stuck,	Stuck.
Sting,	Stung,	Stung.
Stride,	Strode <i>or</i> Strid,	Stridden.
Strike,	Struck,	Struck <i>or</i> Stricken.
Strive,	Strove,	Striven.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
String,	Strung,	Strung.
Strow <i>or</i> }	Strowed <i>or</i> }	Strewn <i>or</i> Strowed.
Strew, }	Strewed, }	Strewed.
Swear,	Swore,	Sworn.
Sweat,	Sweat,	Sweat.
Swim,	Swam <i>or</i> Swum,	Swum.
Swing,	Swung,	Swung.
Take,	Took,	Taken.
Teach,	Taught,	Taught.
Tear,	Tore,	Tore.
Tell,	Told,	Told.
Think,	Thought,	Thought.
Thrive,	Throve,	Thriven.
Throw,	Threw,	Thrown.
Thrust,	Thrust,	Thrust.
Tread,	Trod,	Trodden.
Wax,	Waxed,	Waxen.
Wear,	Wore,	Worn.
Weave,	Wove,	Woven.
Weep,	Wept,	Wept.
Win,	Won,	Won.
Wind,	Wound,	Wound.
Work,	Wrought,	Wrought. (<i>r.</i>)
Wring,	Wrung,	Wrung.
Write,	Wrote,	Written.

§ 216. A Defective Verb is one that wants some of its principal parts. They are chiefly the Auxiliary and Impersonal Verbs.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

Present.	Past.	Past Part.
May,	Might,	_____.
Can,	Could,	_____.
Will,	Would,	_____.
Shall,	Should,	_____.
Must,	Must,	_____.
Ought,	Ought,	_____.
_____,	Quoth,	_____.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—*Must* and *ought* are not varied. *Ought* is always followed by a verb in the infinitive, which determines its tense; e. g., “He *ought* to do it.” Here *ought* is followed by the present infinitive, and is in the present tense.

REMARK 2.—*Quoth* is used only in ludicrous expressions. It is not varied;—its nominative always comes after the verb; e. g., “Quoth *he*.”

IMPERSONAL VERBS.


§ 217. Impersonal Verbs assert the existence of some action, or state, but refer to no personal subject. They are preceded by the pronoun *it*, and are always in the third person singular; e. g., “It *hails* ;” “It *thunders* ;” “It *snows* .”

REMARK.—The pronoun *it* does not seem to represent a noun, but, in connection with the verb, merely to express a state of things.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 218. An Adjective is a word used to describe or limit the meaning of a noun; e. g., *Good* boy; *a* man; *the* man; *either* hat; *five* dollars.

EXPLANATION.—The word adjective signifies adding, or added. This part of speech is so called because it adds a quality or limitation to the meaning of the noun to which it relates.

 All words that have the construction of adjectives are considered as belonging to this class.

CLASS.

§ 219. Adjectives are divided into two classes; *Descriptive* and *Definitive*.

DESCRIPTIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 220. A Descriptive Adjective is a word used to describe a noun; e. g., *Ripe* peaches; *red* roses; *tall* girls.

REMARK.—Adjectives derived from verbs, and having the form of participles, are called Participial Adjectives; e. g., *Enduring* friendship.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Descriptive Adjectives in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“Good boys are obedient to their parents.” “*Good*” is an Adjective, Descriptive. It describes boys; “An adjective is a word used to describe or limit the meaning of a noun.”

Martha is a good girl. Ripe fruit is delicious. The silver moon is just appearing. Honesty is the best policy. A wise son makes a glad father. Dogs are useful animals. Sharp knives are dangerous in the hands of the unexperienced. The brave soldier fought for his country. Do you see that high house? William has a new book. Dutiful children are beloved by their parents. Jane is a most careless girl. Genteel manners are becoming. The morning sun gilds the horizon. A notorious pirate was lately executed. Thomas Slade is a youth of great promise. An impetuous temper should be guarded against.

The fatal day is approaching. Marbles is a stupid play. Webster and Calhoun were able statesmen. A wealthy planter lives in that fine house. Dick is a good servant. Bob is the most industrious hand in the field. An industrious student will secure the respect of his teacher. It is an old adage, but true; "A serene mind makes a cheerful countenance." It is sometimes the case, that truth is more wonderful than fiction.

§ 221. Descriptive Adjectives are varied only to express comparison.

§ 222. There are three degrees of comparison; the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

§ 223. The Positive degree simply describes the object; e. g., "*Good* boys;" "*fine* girls."

§ 224. The Comparative degree increases or lessens the meaning of the positive; e. g., "*Better* men;" "*finer* girls."

§ 225. The Superlative degree increases or lessens the meaning of the positive to the highest or lowest degree; e. g., "*Best* boys;" "*finest* girls."

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 226. If the Positive is a word of one syllable, the Comparative is regularly formed by the addition of *r* or *er*, and the Superlative by *st* or *est*, to the end of it; e. g., Wise, *wiser*, *wisest*; kind, *kinder*, *kindest*.

§ 227. In words of more syllables than one, the Comparative and Superlative are usually made by prefixing the Adverbs *more* and *most* to the Positive; e. g., Benevolent, *more benevolent*, *most benevolent*.

§ 228. Dissyllables ending in *y*, or silent *e*, and those accented on the last syllable are often compared like monosyllables by *er* and *est*; e. g., Happy, *happier*, *happiest*; noble, *nobler*, *noblest*; profound, *profounder*, *profoundest*.

§ 229. Diminution of quality is sometimes expressed by the adverbs *less* and *least*; e. g., Wise, *less wise*, *least wise*.

§ 230. The following words admit of no general rule, but are compared irregularly:

Positive.	Comparative	Superlative.
Good,	Better,	Best.
Little,	Less,	Least.
Much <i>or</i> }	More.	Most.
Many,		
Bad, Evil <i>or</i> }	Worse,	Worst.
Ill,		
Near,	Nearer,	Nearest <i>or</i> Next.
Old,	Older,	Oldest <i>or</i> Eldest.
Late,	Later,	Latest <i>or</i> Last.

EXERCISES.

Compare the words in the following exercises;—give the rule.

Short, white, deep, low, sharp, rich, wise, hard, warm, brave thick, fair, tall, sweet, sour, great, fine, long, large, weak, full,

cold, tame, wild, gay, small, grateful, kind, studious, attentive, negligent, polite, good, tranquil, pleasing, industrious, favorable, moderate, prudent, amiable, disinterested, right, round, famous, contented, diligent, perfect, extreme, able, ample, happy, discreet, many, near, lovely, little, desolate, deceitful, productive, fruitful, delightful, artful, ripe, eloquent, cheerful, revengeful, dark, hateful, generous, high, low, unmindful, dispassionate, benevolent, watchful, old, much.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Descriptive Adjectives;—tell the degree of comparison.

MODEL.—“William has a kind sister.” “*Kind*” is an Adjective, Descriptive, of the Positive degree.

The rose is the fairest of flowers. Thomas has a sweet orange. A correct writer does not fear criticism. Whilst you have opportunity, endeavor to secure a good education. Robert’s apple is the largest of all. Father is happier at home than abroad. Alfred is more conceited than I supposed him to be. Some men are more learned than wise. The diamond is the hardest of all stones. They were great and good men. Spurgeon is more eloquent than Whitfield. Jane is more imprudent than her sister. Are thick lips handsome?

Old Carlo is very watchful at night. Sarah is an interesting young lady. The good scholar obeys his instructor. Astronomy is a wonderful science. Sight is the noblest of the senses. The Americans are an independent people. John is a generous and spirited lad. The gentleman has only a moderate income. Solon was the wisest of the Greeks. Platina is heavier than gold. They follow a bold adventurer whom they fear, we an officer beloved and respected by all. The style of Dryden is capricious and varied; that of Pope is cautious and uniform.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Compose five sentences containing an example of an Adjective in the Positive degree. Five containing an example of an Adjective in the Comparative degree. Five containing an example in the Superlative degree.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A quality may have different degrees in the same object, or in different objects; e. g., “The banker is *richer* now, than he was last year; he is now the *richest* he ever has been.”

REMARK 2.—Adjectives are commonly said to have three degrees of comparison. There are, however, an infinite number of degrees in which qualities may exist in nature. The nicer shades of quality are expressed by the aid of various modifying words and phrases; such as, *rather, somewhat, slightly, a little, very little, so, too, very, much, far, greatly, highly, extremely, exceedingly, by far, in a high degree.*

REMARK 3.—A diminution of quality is expressed by annexing *ish*; e. g., White, *whitish*; black, *blackish*.

REMARK 4.—The Superlative degree is sometimes formed by adding *most* to the end of the last syllable; e. g., *Inmost, hindmost, topmost, nethermost, utmost.*

REMARK 5.—*Superior, inferior, interior, &c.*, from Latin Comparatives, are used to express comparison in English; but they have not the form nor construction of English Comparatives.

REMARK 6.—Most Adjectives that denote qualities that cannot exist in different degrees, are not compared; e. g., *Round, square, twohanded, almighty, supreme, perfect, right, wrong, infinite, ceaseless, omnipresent, eternal, &c.*

REMARK 7.—Many Adjectives which denote invariable qualities are constantly used in the Comparative and Superlative by the best writers; e. g., “Sight is the *most perfect* of all our senses.”

REMARK 8.—Several Adjectives often relate to the same Noun; e. g., “*Broad deep* rivers float *long heavy* rafts.” When one Adjective limits another, the two should be parsed as compound; e. g., “A dress of *dark blue* silk.”

REMARK 9.—Adjectives derived from proper names, definitives and such as refer to position, material and form are seldom if ever compared.

REMARK 10.—When the participle is placed before the noun which it modifies, it is called a *participial adjective*; e. g., “The *rising* sun.” When it is placed after the noun, and is itself limited by other words, it is parsed as a *participle*; e. g., “The sun *rising* in the east.”

DEFINITIVE ADJECTIVES.

§ 231. A Definitive Adjective is a word used to limit the meaning of a noun; e. g., *A* man; *the* book; *either* horse.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—“*A*, *an* and *the*, are not a distinct part of speech in our language.”—WEBSTER.


REMARK 2.—“It is unnecessary in any language to regard the article as a distinct part of speech.”—BUTTMAN.

REMARK 3.—“The words *a* or *an* are reckoned, by some grammarians, a separate part of speech; but as they in all respects come under the definition of the adjective, it is unnecessary as well as improper, to rank them as a separate class by themselves.”—CONNOR.

REMARK 4.—“Pronouns and adjectives are totally distinct in their character. The former stand for nouns, and never belong to them; the latter belong to nouns, and never stand for them. Hence such a thing as an *adjective pronoun* cannot exist.”

§ 232. The following list includes the principal definitives: *A* or *an*, *the*, *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, *former*, *latter*, *which*, *what*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, *some*, *one*, *none*, *any*, *all*, *such*, *much*;

together with the numerals one, two, three, and first, second, &c.

 This list includes all words ranked under the following classes; namely, *Articles*, *Numerals*, *Distributives*, *Demonstratives*, and *Indefinites*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—*A* or *an*, *one*, *this*, *that*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, and the ordinals *first*, *second*, &c., relate to nouns of the singular number only, or such as convey a collective idea; e. g., *A* man; *one* boy; *each* committee.

REMARK 2.—*These*, *those*, *few*, *several*, *all*, and the cardinals above one, relate to nouns of the plural number only; e. g., *These* books; *those* men; *five* boys.

REMARK 3.—*Former*, *latter*, *the*, *any*, *such*, *some*, *which*, *what*, &c., relate to nouns of the plural number.

REMARK 4.—The definitive *a* is used before words beginning with a consonant sound; e. g., *A* tree; *a* house; *a* union; *a* world.

An is used before words beginning with a vowel sound; e. g., *An* eagle; *an* hour; *an* outline.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Definitive Adjectives in the following exercises:

MODEL.—“This day will be remembered.” “*This*” is an adjective definitive, and modifies the meaning of the noun *day*.

“An adjective is a word used to describe or limit the meaning of a noun.”

A book. *An* apple. *The* garden. *Each* toy. *Every* beast. *Either* person. *An* orchard. *This* road. *That* sort of thing. *The* event. *Those* boys are troublesome. *All* must die.

Some persons have emigrated. Other things are wanted. One dollar is sufficient. Anything will do. Every individual perished. All pupils are not studious. Such conduct is insufferable. The watch is broken. An hour too soon. The question is proper. None will escape punishment. Other business demands our attention. A thousand soldiers perished on the field. That man is cowardly. This person is punctual. Whose book is this? Somebody has stolen my knife.

This rule is preferable to that. These scholars are more studious than those. The former plan has yielded to the latter. Each exercise was well written. The first method is better than the last. Many of our hopes are blasted. Few men are of the same mind. Much remains to be said upon these points. Much harm arises from imprudence. The same course was pursued by William and Thomas last year. Neither remark was just. Little hope is entertained of his recovery. More were present than were expected. Our wishes must often yield to those of others. The good are happy.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write sentences introducing the following words: *A, an, the, this, that, these, those, former, latter, which, what, each, every, either, neither, some, one, none, any, all, such, much, both, few, fewer, fewest, first, last, little, less, least, many, more, most, own, some, several, sundry, enough.*

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing an Adjective,—

1. Tell what part of speech it is ; (why ?)
2. What class it belongs to ; (why ?)

3. Compare it, and give the degree; (if a descriptive adjective.)

4. Tell what noun it belongs to.

5. Give the rule for construction.

"Industrious pupils *deserve* praise." "*Industrious*" is an Adjective, Descriptive, of the Positive degree; (*Pos.* industrious, *Comp.* more industrious, *Sup.* most industrious,) and modifies "*pupils*" according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives relate to Nouns which they describe or limit.

"Mary's peach is *riper* than mine." "*Riper*" is an Adjective, Descriptive, of the Comparative degree; (*Pos.* ripe, *Comp.* riper, and *Sup.* ripest,) and modifies "*peach*" according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

"Minnie's effort is worthy of the *highest* commendation." "*Highest*" is an Adjective, Descriptive, of the Superlative degree; (*Pos.* high, *Comp.* higher, *Sup.* highest,) and modifies "*commendation*" according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

"*The* earth is round." "*The*" is an Adjective, Definitive, and modifies "*earth*," according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

"*A* bird can sing." "*A*" is an Adjective, Definitive, and modifies "*bird*," according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

"James has killed *five* squirrels." "*Five*" is an Adjective, Definitive and modifies "*squirrels*," according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

"Give me this apple, and I will give you *that*." "*That*" is an Adjective, Definitive, and modifies "*apple*" understood, according to

RULE VI.—Adjectives, &c.

All men have sinned. That dark cloud indicates rain. Henry's lofty spirit was crushed. A generous man bestows his favors seasonally. That lady has expended a large fortune in acts of benevolence. Every man should seek some employment, if he would fill the end of his being. The morning sun shone bright and clear. That careless boy has injured the map. Each soldier drew his battle blade. The diligent man

treasures up riches against the day of want. The academy is surrounded with shady trees. Early fruit will keep but a short time.

Have you seen the last invention? All the pupils loved Matilda. Emma has the most pleasant seat in school. The greatest men are not always the best. The sable hearse moved slowly on. An indulgent parent delights not in the rod. The sun is larger than the earth. The Pacific is larger than the Atlantic. The Alps are high, the Andes are higher, but the Himalayas are the highest of all. The kingdom of heaven suffereth violence, and the violent take it by force.

QUESTIONS.

What is an Adjective?

What is the meaning of the word Adjective?

What is said of words belonging to this construction?

How are Adjectives divided?

What are they called?

What is a Descriptive Adjective?

Are they varied? For what?

How many degrees of Comparison are there?

What are they?

What is said of the Positive?

Comparative? Superlative?

How is the Comparative formed?

Superlative?

What is said of Dissyllables ending in *y*, &c.?

What is said of *less* and *least*?

Compare good. Little. Much or Many.

Bad. Ill. Near. Old. Late.

What is said of the quality of some Adjectives?

What is said of Comparison in Note Second ?

What is said of *ish* ?

What is the effect of Most after certain words ?

What is said of Round ? Square ? &c.

What is said of the use of many Adjectives denoting invariable qualities ?

—— several Adjectives relating to the same Noun ?

—— the Participle ?

What is a Definitive Adjective ?

What Classes of words are included under this head ?

What is said of *a* or *an*, *one*, *this*, *that*, &c., &c. ?

—— *these*, *those*, *few*, &c., &c. ?

—— *the*, *former*, *latter*, &c., &c. ?

PRONOUNS.

§ 233. A Pronoun is a word used in the place of a noun; e. g., “Alfred was tired, and *he* sat down.”

EXPLANATION.—The word Pronoun means “instead of a noun.” In the sentence “Alfred was tired, and he sat down,” the word *he* stands for the noun *Alfred*, and is used to avoid repetition.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The personal pronouns are used to represent some relation to the speaker. Those of the first and second persons can scarcely be said to represent the name of the speaker, or of the hearer, since they may be used when the name is unknown. They are employed to show a relation rather than a name. Those of the third person represent as well the name of some person or thing, as its relation to the speaker. They enable us to

avoid repeating it; they also show its relation in regard to sex and its syntactic relation.

REMARK 2.—The word for which a pronoun stands is called its *antecedent*, because it usually precedes the pronoun. Some have limited the term antecedent to the word represented by a relative pronoun. There can be no propriety in this, unless we will have every pronoun to be a relative, when it stands for a noun that precedes it. In the example, "Alfred was tired, and *he* sat down;" *he* represents Alfred as its antecedent, yet in our most approved grammars it is not called a relative pronoun, but a personal pronoun.

REMARK 3.—The antecedents of the personal pronouns of the first and second persons are always supposed to be present, and consequently seldom named; that of the third person is usually expressed.

REMARK 4.—A pronoun with which a question is asked, usually stands for some person or thing unknown to the speaker; the noun therefore cannot occur before it, but may be used after it, or in place of it; e. g., "In the grave, *who* shall give thanks?" The word *who* in this sentence is equivalent to *what person*, taken interrogatively.

REMARK 5.—Personal and interrogative pronouns often stand in construction as the antecedents to other pronouns; e. g., "*He that* is slothful in his work, is a brother to *him that* is a great waster." Here *he* and *him* are equivalent to *the man*, and each is taken as the antecedent to the relative which follows it.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

§ 234. Pronouns are divided into two classes : *Personal*, and *Relative*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 235. A Personal Pronoun is one that indicates the person of the noun it represents. They

are divided into two classes: *Simple*, and *Compound*.

SIMPLE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 236. The Simple Personal Pronouns are *I*, *thou* or *you*, *he*, *she*, and *it*.

§ 237. *I* is of the first person, and denotes the speaker; *you* is of the second person, and denotes the individual addressed; *he*, *she* and *it*, are of the third person, and denote the individual or thing spoken of.

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

FIRST PERSON.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>I.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>We.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>My.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Our.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Me.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Us.</i>

SECOND PERSON.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Thou or you.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>Ye or you.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Thy or your.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Your.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Thee or you.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>You.</i>

THIRD PERSON.

Masculine.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	<i>He.</i>	<i>Nom.</i>	<i>They.</i>
<i>Poss.</i>	<i>His.</i>	<i>Poss.</i>	<i>Their.</i>
<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Him.</i>	<i>Obj.</i>	<i>Them.</i>

THIRD PERSON

Feminine.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	She.	<i>Nom.</i>	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Her.	<i>Poss.</i>	Their.
<i>Obj.</i>	Her.	<i>Obj.</i>	Them.

THIRD PERSON.

Neuter.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	It.	<i>Nom.</i>	They.
<i>Poss.</i>	Its.	<i>Poss.</i>	Their.
<i>Obj.</i>	It.	<i>Obj.</i>	Them.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—As the persons speaking or spoken to are supposed to be present, and their sex obvious, a variety of forms in the corresponding pronouns, to express the distinction of gender is unnecessary. But, persons or things spoken of being absent, it is necessary to have certain forms to distinguish gender. The third person of pronouns is distinguished by using *he* for the masculine, *she* for the feminine, and *it* for the neuter.

REMARK 2.—*It* is often used in a vague sense, as the subject of verbs descriptive of weather; e. g., “*It rains* ;” “*It thunders*.”

REMARK 3.—Formerly *thou* was used in addressing a single individual, and a corresponding form of the verb was used; e. g., “*Thou speakest* like one endowed with wisdom ;” but gradually *you* has come to take its place, till the use of *thou* except in solemn style is wholly discontinued.

REMARK 4.—The word *you* was originally plural in signification. It is now universally employed in popular discourse to represent either a singular or plural noun.

NOTE.—The usage of *you* in the singular has become so common, that some writers would have the verb after it in the singular also. No advantage would be gained by adopting this course. It seems to accord more with simplicity as well as the fact to regard it as plural. In certain kinds of writing *we* is used in the same way, and so also is the corresponding pronoun in French, and some other modern languages, in which, however, it is always regarded as plural in form.

REMARK 5.—The apostrophe is never used with *his*, *hers*, *its*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*.

REMARK 6.—*Mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours* and *theirs*, are possessive pronouns. They are used, in construction, either as nominatives or objectives; e. g., “*Your* pleasures are past; *mine* are to come.”

“That *mine*, *thine*, *yours*, *his*, *hers* and *theirs*, do not constitute the possessive case is clearly demonstrable; for they are constantly used as *nominatives* to verbs, and *objectives* after verbs and prepositions.”—

WEBSTER.

“*Mine*, *thine*, &c., are often parsed as pronouns in the possessive case. In the sentence ‘This book is mine,’ the word *mine* is said to possess *book* understood. When supplied, the phrase becomes not *mine book*, but *my book*. By this we are made to parse *mine* as possessing a word before which it cannot be used.”—WELLS.

“A solution which is derived from an interference with the orthography of a language cannot be in accordance with the grammatical principles of any language. This would be sporting syntax at the expense of orthography.”—JAMES BROWN.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Personal Pronouns in the following exercises;—tell the person, gender, number, and case.

MODEL.—“We progress by industry and perseverance.”

“*We*” is a Pronoun, Personal, of the First Person. It is made in the Nominative Plural.

You must not neglect to improve your spare time. Lend me your knife to cut this stick. This book is mine and that is yours. They say that the earth is spherical. Thomas saw the deer and shot it. He who is just will be rewarded. Susan is a good girl, and she will be loved. He fought many battles and wrote the history of them. They may care for you, but they do not care for me. I was athirst, and ye gave me drink. He that trusteth in riches shall fall. They say that the man is a swindler. You must not associate with indolent girls. Is your knife sharper than mine?

The officer was esteemed for his prudence and valor. He that is of a perverse heart shall be despised. Your pleasures are past, mine are to come. Are you hungry? My son found your knife in the street. She fears to approach him on the subject. I am thirsty. James, you must do as I tell you, or it will be to no purpose. William must give that book to me. Joseph knew his brethren, but they knew him not. My house is at your service. We cannot see the stars, as the light of the sun overpowers them. Jane dropped her fan and her brother gave it to her again. I know you will receive it for the sake of the donor.

COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§ 238. When *self* (plural *selves*) is added to the personal pronouns, they are called *Compound Personal Pronouns*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Compound Personal Pronouns are used for the sake of emphasis or distinction; or when an action is represented as exerted upon the agent; e. g., “I *myself* did it;” “He killed *himself*.”

REMARK 2.—Compound Personal Pronouns want the possessive case; the objective is the same as the nominative.

REMARK 3.—*Self* is supposed originally to have been an adjective. It was joined by the Anglo-Saxons to nouns and pronouns in every case. They said what would be equivalent to *Iself*, *myself*, *meself*, except that *self* had a particular termination for each case, as other adjectives had.

REMARK 4.—These pronouns are seldom used in the nominative case, except when annexed to the simple pronouns.

§ 239. Compound Personal Pronouns want the possessive case; the objective is the same as the nominative.

DECLENSION OF THE COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUN.

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Myself.	<i>Nom.</i>	Ourselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	———.	<i>Poss.</i>	———.
<i>Obj.</i>	Myself.	<i>Obj.</i>	Ourselves.
Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Thyself.	<i>Nom.</i>	Yourselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	———.	<i>Poss.</i>	———.
<i>Obj.</i>	Thyself.	<i>Obj.</i>	Yourselves.
Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Himself.	<i>Nom.</i>	Themselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	———.	<i>Poss.</i>	———.
<i>Obj.</i>	Himself.	<i>Obj.</i>	Themselves.
Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Herself.	<i>Nom.</i>	Themselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	———.	<i>Poss.</i>	———.
<i>Obj.</i>	Herself.	<i>Obj.</i>	Themselves.
Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Itself.	<i>Nom.</i>	Themselves.
<i>Poss.</i>	———.	<i>Poss.</i>	———.
<i>Obj.</i>	Itself.	<i>Obj.</i>	Themselves.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Compound Personal Pronouns in the following exercises;—tell the Person, Gender, Number, and Case.

MODEL.—“Mary fell and hurt herself.” “*Herself*” is a Compound Personal Pronoun, of Third Person Feminine. It is made in the Objective Singular, &c.

The carpenter broke it himself. Minnie fell and hurt herself. Thomas separated himself from his companions. You can do it by yourself. Come along—we can go by ourselves. You must not neglect to improve yourselves during my absence. Judas went out and hanged himself. Children often forget themselves in play. Father himself gave it to me. She injured herself and the person who told her. Consider yourselves, for you are rational beings. We can make ourselves happy without riches. It is our duty to provide for ourselves. Let each esteem others better than himself. It is your privilege to make yourself useful if you choose. The professor devoted himself for some years before his death entirely to the study of Greek. Did your sister promise to come by herself, or shall we send for her?

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 240. A Relative Pronoun is one that refers to some preceding noun or pronoun, called the Antecedent; e. g., “I have lost the book *which* I bought.”

EXPLANATION.—The office of the relative is to connect a defining or limiting clause to the noun or pronoun going before, for the purpose of further describing it. In the proposi-

tion “I have lost the book which I bought,” *which* is the relative, and *book* the antecedent.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The following distinctions will show the difference between a relative and a personal pronoun :—

(1.) The relative refers to an object always known, and either previously mentioned, or so clearly implied as to need no mention; the personal pronoun refers to an object known, and in the third person to an object previously mentioned, but in the first and second persons to an object not previously mentioned.

(2.) The personal pronouns have a distinct form for each grammatical person; *I* for the first, *thou* or *you* for the second, and *he*, *she*, or *it* for the third. The relative pronouns do not change their form to represent person.

(3.) The essential difference is seen in their use in construction. The personal pronoun may represent the subject of an independent sentence; the relative never; e. g., “He is present;” “Which is important.” The first is a complete sentence; the second needs some word, on which it may depend.

REMARK 2.—The relative serves two purposes; one, as a pronoun to represent a noun in any relation; the other as a connective joining the relative clause to the antecedent. In this case it may be considered as a kind of auxiliary employed to convert an independent proposition into a dependent one, and to adapt it as an adjective to modify some antecedent noun.

SIMPLE RELATIVES.

§ 241. The Simple Relatives are *who*, *which*, *that*, and *what*; they are the same in both numbers and are thus declined :—

Singular.		Plural.	
<i>Nom.</i>	Who.	<i>Nom.</i>	Who.
<i>Poss.</i>	Whose.	<i>Poss.</i>	Whose.
<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.	<i>Obj.</i>	Whom.

Singular.
Nom. Which.
Poss. Whose.
Obj. Which.

Plural.
Nom. Which.
Poss. Whose.
Obj. Which.

Singular.
Nom. What.
Poss. ———.
Obj. What.

Plural.
Nom. What.
Poss. ———.
Obj. What.

Singular.
Nom. That.
Poss. ———.
Obj. That.

Plural.
Nom. That.
Poss. ———.
Obj. That.

§ 242. *Who* is applied to persons only ; e. g., “The man *who* is accustomed to reflect finds instruction in everything.”

§ 243. *Which* is applied to inferior animals, and things without life ; e. g., “The dog *which* barks.” “I have found the book *which* I had lost.”

REMARK.—*Which* is applied also to collective nouns expressing a collection of persons, when the reference is to the collection, and not the persons composing it ; e. g., “The committee *which* was appointed.”

§ 244. *That* is used for *who* or *which*, and may be applied to either persons or things ; e. g., “He *that* gathereth in summer is a wise son.”

§ 245. *What* is applied to things only, and is never used except when the antecedent is omitted ; e. g., “This is *what* I wanted.”

REMARK.—Butler says that *what* is a simple relative, referring to some general antecedent omitted. At first view this opinion may appear somewhat novel. A little reflection will show that the antecedent is *thing* or *things*, or some general term, obvious from the sense.

It has been the uniform custom of teachers to substitute and parse the equivalent words (*that which* or *thing which*), instead of the orig-

inal. That this course is erroneous must be obvious from the simple fact that by this method they parse their own language, not the author's.

When the antecedent is expressed the relative following must be *which* or *that*—never *what*; e. g., “The rose *that* was plucked is fading.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Relative and Antecedent in the following exercises:

MODEL.—“Theodore has lost the purse that I gave him.” In this sentence *that* is the Relative, and *purse* the Antecedent.

Never purchase a thing that you have not seen. I am writing with the pen that my sister gave me. This is the bird that broke out of the cage. The man who said that must be a prophet. The books which I sent by George are for Mary. A king who is just will endeavor to make his subjects happy. Alexander, who conquered the world, was conquered by his own passion. The rose that you plucked is fading. The gentleman whom you addressed was my uncle. Teachers are usually pleased with pupils that progress well. Is this the book that was in your desk yesterday? Whom God wishes to destroy, he first makes mad. The man that purchased your plantation is highly pleased.

Brother James carelessly broke the knife that his father gave him as a Christmas present. There are certain boys with whom it is the wish of your parents that you should not associate. Preston, whom we heard in the Senate, is an eloquent speaker. The box that was sent from Charleston is much injured. The church that was lately injured by fire is under going repairs. He who steals my purse, steals trash. This is a beautiful dog that you have. The present that you sent me was much admired. I took what he gave me. The man who is faithfully attached to religion, may be relied on with con-

fidence. Cherish true patriotism, whose root is benevolence. I have ascertained what we must learn.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 246. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when used in asking questions, are sometimes called Interrogative Pronouns; e. g., “*Who* is here?” “*Which* book shall I send?” “*What* do you see?”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Some writers, says Murray, class Interrogatives as a separate kind of pronoun; but they are too nearly related to the Relative, both in nature and in form, to render such a distinction necessary; nor do they lose the character of Relatives when they become Interrogatives. The only difference is, that without an interrogation they have reference to a subject that is antecedent, definite, and known. With the interrogation they refer to a subject subsequent, indefinite and unknown, which it is expected that the answer should express; e. g., “Who is concealed in the garden?” Here the name is not mentioned; the answer must be, “I do not know *who*,” equal to “I do not know *him* who is concealed,” &c. Here *who* is a relative pronoun having *him* for its antecedent.

REMARK 2.—*Which* and *what* as Interrogatives are Definitive Adjectives belonging to some Noun expressed or understood. *Who* is equivalent to *what person*.

REMARK 3.—A question is either direct or indirect;—direct; e. g., “Who did it?”—indirect; e. g., “He asked me who did it.”

NOTE.—Besides pronouns, various interrogative adverbs are used in asking questions; e. g., Why? where? when? how?

EXERCISES.

Point out the Interrogatives in the following exercises;—tell whether the question is direct or indirect.

MODEL.—“James, who broke that slate?” “*Who*” is the Interrogative; the question is direct.

“The teacher inquired who broke that slate.” “*Who*” is the Interrogative; the question is indirect.

He asked me which boy I meant? James, whom did you meet there? Father inquired who broke that window. Boys, which of us shall go? Whose hat is that on the parlor table? What did you say you intended doing? Whom did you send to Alabama? I asked whose book that was. What does your friend say respecting it? What is the best policy to be observed? Your father asked me what I thought of it. I can hardly answer; what is your opinion? Are you prepared what to say? What time do you want for reflection? What answer shall I give the committee?

James, which seat do you prefer? Who has learned the lesson? What have you found in the garden? For what were you sent here? Who shall separate us? Which way has Mary gone? Whose books have you found? Of whom do you speak?

COMPOUND RELATIVES.

§ 247. The relatives *who*, *which* and *what*, with *ever* or *soever* annexed, are called Compound Relatives; e. g., “*Whoever* does no good does harm.”

§ 248. Like the relative *what*, they are only used when the indefinite antecedent is omitted. In such cases they are more commonly used than the simple pronoun.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—These words do not include a relative and antecedent, but, like *what*, the antecedent is omitted. If the antecedent is included in the word, as is most commonly supposed, it must follow that it is frequently in two cases at the same time, the subject of one verb and the object of another; e. g., “I love whoever loves me.” In this example it is palpable, from the form of the word (*whoever*), that it is in the nominative case. The object is omitted, because it is indefinite.

REMARK 2.—In old writings the antecedent is sometimes expressed; e. g., “Blessed is he whosoever shall not be offended in me.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Compound Relative;—tell the antecedent omitted.

MODEL.—“Whatever purifies, fortifies the heart.” “*Whatever*” is the Compound Relative, and “*thing*” the Antecedent.

It is certain that whoever goes will never return. It is written, “Whoever runs may read.” Whoever studies will become learned. Whoever most distinguishes himself will obtain the prize. Whoever breaks this rule must be punished. Whoever steals my purse will steal trash. Whomsoever he recommends will be elected. Whoever invented printing lived about the fifteenth century. Whatever violates nature cannot be innocent. Whoever forgets a benefit is an enemy to society. The Lord chastens whomsoever he loves. The reward shall be given to whomsoever deserves it.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing a Personal Pronoun of the First Person agreeing with its antecedent in gender, number, and person. In like manner write five containing a Personal

Pronoun of the Second Person. Write five containing a Personal Pronoun of the Third Person.

Write five sentences containing a Simple Relative agreeing with its antecedent in gender, number, and person. Five containing a Compound Relative.

Write five sentences containing an example of an Interrogative Pronoun having the question in the direct form. Five containing an example of an Interrogative with the question indirect.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing a Pronoun ;—

1. Tell what part of speech it is ; (why ?)
2. What kind of a pronoun ; (why ?)
3. Tell what its antecedent is ;
4. Give the gender, person and number ; (why ?)
5. Decline it ;
6. Give the case and construction ;
7. Rule for construction.

“William went to his play.” “*His*” is a Pronoun, Personal, Masculine, Third Singular, and agrees with its antecedent *William*, according to

RULE VII.—Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

It is made in the Possessive, and limits the noun *play*, according to

RULE IV —A noun or pronoun used to limit the relation of ownership, source or kind, is put in the possessive.

“Thomas brought a book, and laid it on the table.” “*It*” is a Pronoun, Personal, Neuter, Third Singular, and agrees with its antecedent *book*, according to

RULE VII.—Pronouns must agree, &c.

It is made in the Objective, and limits the action of the transitive verb *laid*, according to

RULE III.—A noun or pronoun used to limit the action of a transitive verb, must be in the objective.

“Edward knew the man who was so kind to him.” “*Who*” is a Pronoun, Relative, Masculine, and agrees with its antecedent *man*, according to

RULE VII.—Pronouns must agree, &c.

It is in the Nominative Case, and Subject of the verb *was*, according to

RULE I.—The subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case.

“Henry found what he wanted.” “*What*” is a Pronoun, Relative, Neuter, and agrees with its antecedent *thing* understood, according to

RULE VII.—Pronouns must agree, &c.

It is made in the Objective Singular, and limits the action of the transitive verb *wanted*, according to

RULE III.—A noun or pronoun used to limit, &c.

“Whoever studies will become learned.” “*Whoever*” is a Pronoun, Compound, Relative; it is compounded of *who* and *ever*, and agrees with the antecedent *person* understood, according to

RULE VII.—Pronouns must agree, &c.

It is made in the Nominative Singular, and is the Subject, &c., according to

RULE I.—The subject of a proposition, &c.

“What did you eat for breakfast?” “*What*” is a Pronoun, Interrogative; it is used in asking a question; Singular Number, &c.

It is made in the Objective Case, and limits the action of the transitive verb *did eat*, according to

RULE III.—A noun or pronoun used to limit, &c.

William’s mother is dependent on him for support. Diligent pupils attend to their books during the hours for study. If William and Robert violate the rule they must be punished. Alfred took what his sister Matilda gave him. The nation was once powerful, but now it has become almost extinct.

Here is the lad that brought the note, he can answer the question. George has read the book and lent it to James. A mother who regards her children will correct them for their faults. Whoever gets this will not get much. The child that was lost some days ago is found. Jane should obey her mother. I witnessed the fact which he related. My little sister amuses herself with Annie's doll. The earth brought forth grass, and the herb yielding seed after its kind.

James wronged himself to oblige his friends. George and William are diligent in their studies. Have you seen the book that father lately brought me from New York? What is more refreshing to the eye than green? for this reason Providence has made it the common dress of nature. The sun, according to the theory of some of the ancient philosophers, quenches its flames in the ocean. Whatever you undertake to do should be done without hesitation or delay. The committee were much divided in their opinion. I forgot to tell you what the teacher said about good recitations this morning. The rule teaches what is necessary to be understood.

It is an old adage and a true one, that whatever cannot be cured must be endured. The pointer that you gave my brother has been much admired for her fine qualities. My friend who leaves me here will reach Boston by noon. The man we met, from his dress seemed to be a sailor. Sarah is writing with a gold pen that was presented to her for the best specimen in penmanship by Professor Rand. You can take which you choose. There is the boy that caused so much disturbance on the play-ground last evening. The tree which Maria planted is dead. What do the artful and cunning gain by intrigue? Have you done what I directed this morning? We are commanded to do with all diligence whatever our hands find to do. What is more to be desired than wisdom?

its price is above rubies and fine gold. A Christian will not only love, but pray for his enemies. Whatever conduces to the best interests of society should be cultivated.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Pronoun?

How many kinds are there?

What is a Personal Pronoun?

How many kinds are there?

How many Simple Pronouns are there?

What Person is I? You? He? She? It?

What is said of Pronouns of the First and Second Person?

—— of the use of *thou*?

—— of *you*?

—— *mine, thine, &c.*?

Decline *I, you, &c., &c.*

What is a Compound Personal Pronoun?

How are they used?

What is a Relative Pronoun?

How many kinds are there?

Decline *who, which, &c.*

What is an Interrogative Pronoun?

How does it differ from the Relative?

To what does it relate?

What is a Compound Relative?

ADVERB.

§ 249. An Adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, adjective, or another ad-

verb ; e. g., “James studies *diligently*, and is a *very* attentive pupil.”

EXPLANATION.—The office of the adverb is to shorten discourse, by expressing in a single word what would require two or more ; e. g., “James studies *diligently* ;” that is, James studies *in a diligent manner*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Adverbs briefly express what would otherwise require several words ; e. g., *Now*, for *at this time* ; *very*, for *in a high degree* ; *diligently*, for *in an industrious manner*. Thus the meaning of almost any adverb may be explained by some phrase beginning with a preposition and ending with a noun.

REMARK 2.—There are several customary combinations of short words, which are used adverbially, and which some grammarians do not analyse in parsing ; e. g., *Not at all* ; *at length* ; *in fine* ; *in full* ; *at least* ; *at present* ; *at once* ; *this once* ; *in vain* ; *no doubt* ; *on board*. All words that convey distinct ideas, and rightly retain their individuality, ought to be taken separately in parsing. With the liberty of supposing a few ellipses, an ingenious parser will seldom find occasion to speak of “adverbial phrases.” In these instances *length*, *doubt*, *fine*, and *board* are unquestionably nouns ; *once*, too, is used as a noun ; *full* and *all* may be parsed either as nouns or as adjectives with a noun understood.

REMARK 3.—Under nearly all the different classes of words, particular instances may be quoted, in which other parts of speech seem to take the nature of adverbs, so as either to become such, or to be apparently used for them. (1.) NOUNS : “And scrutiny became *stone* blind.”—*Cowper*. “He will come *home to-morrow*.”—*Clark*. (2.) VERBS : “*Smack* went the whip, *round* went the wheels.”—*Cowper*. “Like medicine given *scalding* hot.”—*Dodd*. (3.) ADJECTIVES : “Drink *deep* or taste not.”—*Pope*. “A man may speak *louder* or *softer* in the same key ; when he speaks *higher* or *lower* he changes his key.”—*Sheridan*. (4.) PRONOUNS : “What am I eased?”—*Job*. “He is *somewhat* arrogant.”—*Dryden*. (5.) PREPOSITIONS : “They shall go *in* and *out*.”—*Bible*. “From going

to and *fro* in the earth, and walking *up* and *down* in it.”—*Ibid.* (6.) CONJUNCTIONS: “Look, *as* I blow this feather from my face.”—*Shakspeare.* (7.) EXCLAMATIONS are never used as adverbs, though most Greek grammarians refer them to this class.

REMARK 4.—An adverb may be known by its answering to the question *How? How much? When* or *where?*

EXERCISES.

In the following exercises point out the Adverb;—tell how you know it.

MODEL.—“The sun shines mildly.” “*Mildly*” is an Adverb, because it modifies *shines*.

I will never distrust your friendship. The stream flows very smoothly. James acted prudently in the matter. If you read attentively you will improve. Mary reads correctly. The difficulty will be settled amicably. James acted wisely. George, running hastily, fell and hurt himself. William and Mary read fluently. Robert acted more discreetly than we anticipated. Martha behaved badly at school yesterday. The wind moaned mournfully over her grave. O, lightly, lightly tread. The storm raged fearfully. Hannah performed her duty faithfully. Jane is continually changing her mind. May we expect to see you to-morrow?

The company were agreeably disappointed. The wind blew terribly from the north. The sun shines mildly. The stars are very bright. He taught me as well as could be expected under the circumstances. We have come nearly a mile. The world is very large. I wish the difficulty between George and his brother was amicably settled. Edward swims badly for one that might do so much better. Where shall I put the cage? I am very tired. The lark sings sweetly. Unless it should rain soon, the crops will be much injured.

CLASSES OF ADVERBS.

§ 250. Adverbs may be divided into several classes. The following are the most important:—

1. Of time ; as

To-day, to-morrow, yesterday, early, late, before, after, ere, soon, presently, now, immediately, directly, at once, next, then, when, ago, while, whilst, &c., &c.

2. Of place ; as

Here, there, thence, hence, whence, above, below, yonder, far, wide, near, within, without, fore, forward, right, backwards, sideways, &c., &c.

3. Of number ; as

Once, twice, thrice, first, secondly, thirdly, &c., &c.

4. Of manner ; as

Well, ill, slowly, politely, quickly, patiently, richly, poorly, cleverly, wisely, stupidly, sweetly, &c., &c.

5. Of degree ; as

Very, highly, exceedingly, quite, enough, extremely, nearly, especially, &c., &c.

6. Of affirmation and negation ; as

Yes, yea, ay, no, not, not at all, &c., &c.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The adverbs *when, where, why, how, &c.*, when used in asking questions, are called *interrogative* adverbs; e. g., “*When* did your brother arrive?”

REMARK 2.—Adverbs of manner are generally formed from adjectives by adding *ly*; e. g., Bright, *brightly*; smooth, *smoothly*. But when the adjective ends in *ly*, a phrase is commonly used; e. g., “In a *lovely manner*.”

REMARK 3.—*There* is used as an expletive to introduce a sentence when the verb *to be* denotes existence; e. g., "*There* are many of the same opinion."

REMARK 4.—*Nay*, *no*, and *not* are called *negative* adverbs; *nay* is nearly obsolete; *no* is generally used to denote denial in the answer to a question, and seems to stand for *not* and the sentence contained in the question, the necessary changes for person, &c., being made. Thus, "Will you go?" "No;" that is, I will not go. It may be considered simply as used for *not*, the rest of the sentence being understood.

Yes is generally used to denote assent in the answer to a question, and may be considered as modifying some word in a manner similar to *no*.

REMARK 5.—The adverb *so* is often used as a substitute for some preceding word, or group of words; e. g., "John is in *good business*, and is likely to remain *so*."

EXERCISES.

Point out the Adverbs in the following sentences;—tell the class to which they belong.

It rained yesterday almost incessantly. The work is done faithfully. Will you be here next week? We must leave immediately or we shall not reach the boat in time to secure a berth. The weather is extremely cold for the season. When do you go below? Thomas was politely received, and invited to remain. Emma sings sweetly. Our hall was lately injured by fire. Rufus studies diligently, and is a very attentive pupil. Can you run backward as fast as forward? The man was poorly clad. Henry has waited patiently for more than an hour. You are always so fast or so slow. John saw him only. The stage leaves long before noon. God is present everywhere. Beasts should be kindly treated. He was truly a great man, and deserves our esteem. You must read more attentively if you expect to improve. Is your book where you

left it? George was earnestly entreated to remain. Should it rain to-morrow the lecture will be postponed. Because the wicked do not receive their just deserts immediately, they grow bold in transgression and sin. John has solved the problem correctly. Human prudence should be rightly understood. One can easily imagine himself rich. How soon we forget our misdeeds. Perhaps you can tell the reason.

CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS.

§ 251. Conjunctive Adverbs are those which give a dependent clause an adverbial relation, and connect it with the verb, adjective, or adverb, which it modifies; e. g., "I shall see you *when* you come."

REMARK 1.—Conjunctive adverbs are equivalent to two phrases, the one containing a relative pronoun, and the other its antecedent; e. g., "The lilies grow where the ground is moist." Here the phrase *in that place* modifies *grow*, and the phrase *in which* modifies *moist*; hence *where*, the equivalent of the two, modifies both.

REMARK 2.—The words which are used as conjunctive adverbs, are such as *when*, *where*, *while*, *whither*, *whence*, &c.

REMARK 3.—These words are not always conjunctive adverbs; some of them are sometimes used instead of adjuncts containing interrogative pronouns; e. g., "When (*at what time*) will he come?"

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

§ 252. Most Adverbs, especially those denoting manner, admit of comparison; e. g., "John speaks *more fluently* than Thomas."

REMARK 1.—Most adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by *more* and *most*; e. g., Wisely, *more wisely*, *most wisely*.

154 ADVERB.--EXERCISES.--MODEL FOR PARSING.

REMARK 2.—A few are compared by adding *er* and *est*; e. g., *Soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

REMARK 3.—The following are irregularly compared; *badly* or *ill*; *worse*, *worst*; *little*, *less*, *least*; *much*, *more*, *most*; *well*, *better*, *best*.

EXERCISES.

Compare the following Adverbs:

Adroitly, coolly, famously, soon, near, little, well, much, joyfully, pensively, ill, politely, cleverly, poorly, stupidly, richly, quickly, highly.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing an Adverb, tell

1. What part of speech it is; (why?)
2. Compare it, (when it admits of it,) and tell the degree;
3. Tell what it modifies;
4. Give the rule.

“Alfred studies diligently.” “*Diligently*” is an Adverb of the Positive degree, (*Pos.* diligently, *Comp.* more diligently, *Sup.* most diligently,) and modifies the verb *studies*, according to

RULE XIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs.

“Mary writes more elegantly than her brother.” “*More elegantly*” is an Adverb of the Comparative degree, (*Pos.* elegantly, *Comp.* more elegantly, *Sup.* most elegantly,) and modifies the verb *writes*, according to

RULE XIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, &c.

“James will go whenever you wish.” “*Whenever*” is a Conjunctive Adverb. It gives the dependent clause an adverbial relation, and con-

nects it with the verb *will go*; it modifies both *will go* and *wish*, according to

RULE XIII.—Adverbs modify verbs, &c.

The instrument is placed where it belongs. George and James improve rapidly. I think I know the man when I see him. The sun shines pleasantly. Flowers soon fade. Glass is easily broken. William conducted very properly. The question may be settled without much difficulty. God is always present, his eye never slumbers. Did you ever see such a carelessly written composition? Boys should rise early, if they would accomplish much. We heard a very amusing anecdote about one of the Judson girls. A diligent man always finds time to converse with his friends. Mother severely reprimanded Carrie for her negligence and inattention.

Whatever is done willingly, in general is done well. Henry will be well prepared when the time arrives. Mary draws and paints well. I will go because she wishes to see me. Mattie may return whenever she wishes. Father consented after much persuasion. Thomas wrote the letter but a few days since. Thomas will remain while you are absent. Martha disobeyed the rule, although she knew it was wrong to do so. Hattie will come as soon as her engagements permit. A generous man bestows his favors seasonably.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write three sentences containing an adverb in *ly*. Write three containing a conjunctive adverb. Write three containing an adverb of time. Write three containing an adverb of place. Write three containing an adverb of number. Write three containing an adverb of degree. Write three containing an adverb of affirmation or denial.

QUESTIONS.

- What is an Adverb ?
 How may an Adverb be known ?
 What are the principal classes of Adverbs ?
 What is a Conjunctive Adverb ?
 How are Adverbs in *ly* compared ?
 Compare *soon*, *little*, &c., &c.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 253. A Preposition is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; e. g., “Washington was the father *of* his country;” “Uncle went *from* Columbia *to* Charleston.”

EXPLANATION.—“Washington was the father of his country;” “Uncle went from Columbia to Charleston.” In the foregoing examples *of* expresses the relation between *father* and *country*; *from*, the relation between *went* and *Columbia*; and *to*, the relation between *went* and *Charleston*.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Every relation necessarily implies more than one object. Of the words related, the former is called the *antecedent* term of the relation, and the latter the subsequent term. The *antecedent* term may be a noun, pronoun, adjective, verb, adverb, or conjunction. The subsequent term may be a noun or pronoun.

REMARK 2.—The preposition and its subsequent term form an *adjunct*, limiting the antecedent term; e. g., The city *of New Orleans*.

REMARK 3.—The preposition always shows the relation of dependence. When the antecedent term is a noun, its adjunct partakes of the nature of an adjective; e. g., "The rays of the sun" = *solar* rays.

When the antecedent term is a verb, participle, adjective, or adverb, the adjunct has the nature of an adverb; e. g., "The case was conducted with skill" = *skilfully*.

REMARK 4.—The object of a preposition is not always a single word; it may be a phrase or clause; e. g., "The city was *about to capitulate* when Napoleon arrived." "Much will depend *on who the commissioners are*."

REMARK 5.—The sign *to* of the infinitive mood is not a preposition, but a verbal prefix belonging to the verb to indicate its peculiar form.

REMARK 6.—Every preposition requires an object after it; e. g., "George is obedient *to* his parents." A preposition without a regimen becomes an adverb; e. g., "He has gone *before*."

LIST OF PREPOSITIONS.

About.	At.	Down.
Above.	Athwart.	During.
Abroad.	Before.	Except.
According to.	Behind.	Excepting.
Across.	Below.	For.
After.	Beside. }	From.
Against.	Besides. }	In, into.
Along.	Beneath.	Notwithstanding
Amid. }	Between.	Of.
Amidst. }	Betwixt.	Off.
Among.	Beyond.	On.
Amongst.	By.	Out of.
Around.	Concerning.	Over.

Past.	Till.	Until.
Regarding.	To.	Unto.
Respecting.	Touching.	Up.
Round.	Toward. }	Upon.
Since.	Towards. }	With.
Through.	Under.	Within.
Throughout.	Underneath.	Without.

§ 254. *A*, in the sense of *at*, *in*, *on*, *to*, or *by*, is a preposition in such expressions as *a* hunting, *a* going, *a* reading ; e. g., “He set it in motion, and kept it *a* going.”

§ 255. *According*, *concerning*, *during*, *excepting*, *regarding*, and *respecting*, were originally participles. They are now regarded as prepositions.

§ 256. *Like*, *worth*, and *but* in the sense of *except* are used as prepositions.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Prepositions in the following exercises.

Our teacher resides in that house. The candidates entered into many explanations. A crystal stream flows beneath the ice. The company were seated by the fire, for the day was cold. The eagle soars majestically through the air. The steamer will leave soon after sunrise. That book is behind the times. Is the money of your banks below par? When I entered the counting-room the clerk was standing before the desk. My father has been sick above a month and unable to leave his room. The hawk flew over the broad river. The favor was granted on certain conditions. His tender mercies are over all his works. Washington was a general of the greatest valor and prudence.

My son, walk in the path of virtue, if you would escape the thousand besetments of life. Alfred found the book in the road on his way to school. My knife is worth a dollar. The voice of nature cries from the tomb. Peter said unto them, I go a fishing. My uncle went from Rome to Paris. And he reasoned with them out of the Scriptures. The buds are swelling in the warm rays of the sun. The hills are covered with a carpet of green. Mary and Susan had a pleasant walk with their friends. We have come to seek the early fruits in your sunny valley. He was highly honored for his gallant conduct in rescuing so many from a watery grave. He lived in the greatest seclusion like an anchorite of old. Who shall be queen of May? General Taylor was esteemed for his courage rather than his prudence.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing a Preposition, tell

1. What part of speech ; (why?)
2. Between what words it shows the relation ;
3. Give the rule.

“We went from Montgomery to New York.” “*From*” is a Preposition. It shows the relation between the noun *Montgomery* and the verb *went*, according to

RULE IX.—A preposition is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word.

“*To*” is a preposition. It shows the relation between the noun *New York* and the verb *went*, according to

RULE IX.—A preposition is a word, &c.

"The brother of Richard I. usurped the throne." "*Of*" is a preposition. It shows the relation of *Richard* to *brother*, according to

RULE IX.—A preposition is a word, &c.

The watchmen are on their guard. James is without fear. William is in the garden behind the house. Alfred ran across the field into the house. He was my companion in adversity. According to my impression he is in fault. The merchant lives within his income. You may expect a calm after a storm. The tower was on the top of the hill. Martha was walking towards the house. Let us walk through the garden. We passed by the church on our way home. The soldiers have all gone but one regiment. Instead of friends we found enemies. My uncle's residence is near the Exchange. It happened during the present administration. He was buried with his martial cloak around him. My friend has an estate worth fifty thousand dollars. The progress from virtue to vice is progressive. Matilda was at home when I called.

A long friendship has existed between us. It is my request, that you should all come in the house. As little as you may suppose there is something very mysterious in this affair. It was properly observed a short time since by one of the company, that favors are not always bestowed on the most deserving. My friend Perry of Tuskegee has but little use for him. I find great difficulty in expressing my sentiments on this subject for fear of giving offence. I love to hear the birds sing in the morning. You may as well attempt to turn the sun into ice by fanning it with a peacock's feather. The immense quantity of matter in the universe presents a most striking display of Almighty power. The rapid motions of the great bodies in the heavens demonstrate the infinite power of him that formed them.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Turn to the list of prepositions and write short sentences containing an example of each. Thus: Birds fly *in* the air. John and William went *into* the country this morning. Uncle walks *with* a cane.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Preposition?

What is implied in every relation?

What is the former called? ——— the latter?

What is said of the antecedent term?

The subsequent?

What is an adjunct?

When the antecedent term of the preposition is a noun, what is the nature of the adjunct?

When it is a verb, participle, adjective or adverb?

What is said of the object of a preposition?

What is said of the sign *to* of the infinitive?

What does every preposition require?

What is said of the preposition without a regimen?

What is said of *a* in the sense of *at, in, on, to, &c.*?

What is said of *according, concerning, during, &c.*?

——— of *like, worth, &c.*?

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 257. A Conjunction is a word used to connect words or propositions; e. g., “Susan *and* Mary know *that* they have disobeyed.”

EXPLANATION.—“ Susan and Mary know that they have disobeyed.” Here *and* connects the words *Susan* and *Mary*, and *that* the propositions “ Susan and Mary know” and “ they have disobeyed.”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—A pure conjunction forms no part of the material or substance of a sentence; its office is simply to unite the materials into a single structure.

REMARK 2.—Connective words are of four kinds;—relative pronouns, adverbs, conjunctions, and prepositions. These resemble one another so far as they are all connectives, yet they possess characteristic differences by which they are readily distinguished. Relative pronouns represent antecedents, and are declined; conjunctive adverbs have a connective power in addition to their adverbial character and consequently sustain a double relation; conjunctions (except expletives) connect words or sentences, showing their relation to each other or something else; prepositions, though subject to some preceding word, take a noun or pronoun after them to complete their relation, and in this they differ from all the rest.

REMARK 3.—Conjunctions sometimes connect entire sentences, and sometimes particular words. When a whole sentence is closely linked with another, both become clauses or members of a more complex sentence; and when a word or phrase is coupled with another, both have in general a common dependence upon some other word in the same sentence. In parsing, the terms connected should always be specified.

CLASSIFICATION.

§ 258. Conjunctions are of two classes; *Coördinate* and *Subordinate*.

EXPLANATION.—A Coördinate Conjunction is one that connects elements of equal rank; e. g., “ Time is short, *and* art is long.”

A Subordinate Conjunction is one that connects elements of unequal rank; e. g., "Henry will go *if* Thomas remains."

§ 259. Coördinate Connectives are always conjunctions. They may be divided into three classes; *Copulative*, *Adversative*, and *Alternative*.

§ 260. Copulative Conjunctions are those which unite parts in harmony with each other; e. g., "The day dawned, *and* we left for home."

The Copulative Conjunctions are,

(1.) *And*, a connective of the general character, placing the parts connected in a relation of perfect equality.

(2.) *So*, *also*, *likewise*, *too*, *besides*, *moreover*, *furthermore*, *now*, *hence*, *whence*, *therefore*, *wherefore*, *consequently*, *even*, connectives associated with *and* expressed or understood, and used to give *emphasis* or some additional idea; e. g., "Emma sings; (and) *besides* she plays beautifully."

(3.) *Not only* — *but*, *but also*, *but likewise*, *as well* — *as*, *both* — *and*, *first* — *secondly*, *thirdly*, &c.; connectives employed when we wish to make the second part emphatic, but awaken the expectation of some addition. As these parts correspond to each other, their connectives are called *correlatives*.

§ 261. Adversative Conjunctions are those which unite parts in opposition to, or in contrast with each other; e. g., "The fish was brought to the shore, *but* plunged into the water again."

EXPLANATION.—Adversative Conjunctions are employed,

(1.) When the second part is placed in opposition to the first; e. g., "It does not rain, *but* it hails."

(2.) When the second part is placed in opposition to a supposed inference from the first; e. g., "The army was victorious, *but* the general was slain."

The Adversative Conjunctions are,

(1.) *But*, which simply shows opposition without emphasis; e. g., "I shall go, *but* I shall ride."

(2.) *Yet, still, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, now, and some others* which are associated with *but* either expressed or understood, and give emphasis or some additional idea; e. g., "The delinquent has been frequently admonished, (but) *still* he is as negligent as ever."

§ 262. Alternative Conjunctions are those which offer or deny a choice between two things; e. g., "We must fight, *or* our liberties will be lost."

The Alternative Conjunctions are,

- (1.) *Or*, which offers, and *nor* (not *or*), which denies a choice.
- (2.) *Else, otherwise*, associated with *or* for the sake of emphasis.
- (3.) *Either* and *neither*, correlatives of *or* and *nor*.

§ 263. Subordinate Connectives are those which join dissimilar elements; e. g., "I shall go *when* the stage arrives." Subordinate connectives are divided into three classes; those which connect *substantive* clauses, those which connect *adjective* clauses, and those which connect *adverbial* clauses.

(1.) Substantive clauses containing a statement are connected by the conjunctions *that, that not*, and sometimes *but, but that*. Substantive clauses containing an inquiry are connected by the interrogatives *who, which, what, where, whither, whence, when, how long, how often, why, wherefore, how*.

(2.) Adjective clauses are connected by the relative pronouns *who, which, what, that, whoever, whosoever, whichever, whichsoever, whatever, whatsoever*, and sometimes the relative adverbs *why, when, where*.

(3.) Adverbial clauses are connected by the conjunctive adverbs *where, whither, whence, wherever, whithersoever, as far as, as long as, further than*, which denote place; *when, while, whilst, as, before, after, ere, till, until, since, wherever, as long as, as soon as, the moment, the instant, as frequently as, as often as*, which denote time; or the conjunctions *because, for, as, whereas, inasmuch* (causal), *if, unless, though, lest, except, provided, provided that*, (conditional,) *that, that not, lest*, (final,) *though, although, notwithstanding, however, whatever, whoever, whichever, while*, with the correlatives *yet, still, nevertheless*, (adversative,) which denote causal relations; *as, just as, so — as, same — as*, (correspondence,) *so — that, such*

—— *that*, (consequence,) *as* —— *as*, (comparison of equality,) *the* —— *the*, *the* —— *so much the*, (proportionate equality,) *than*, *more than*, *less than*, (comparison of inequality,) which denote manner.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Conjunctions in the following exercises;—tell what they connect.

Jane and Martha have been carefully educated, but to little purpose. I will walk that you may ride. Were the passengers or the driver injured? Alfred or Willis will go to Auburn in a few days. He wrote the book, because it afforded him amusement. Exercise and temperance strengthen the constitution. He was poor though he might have been rich. Susan and Mary are taking lessons in drawing. I will see you when you come. He cannot tell how it was done. You can see him here or at his office. The women also were present. Your father inquired when I heard from cousin Robert. Did you know that your sister had returned? It is uncertain whether the truth will be made to appear.

It is not certain when letters were first used. Your horse is not lame but blind. It is now evident that the bill will be defeated. That honor and fame are the offspring of labor, is the eternal law of nature. My desire is that you may succeed. John is wiser than his teacher. They have more than they need. He controls both public and private affairs. Give us such things as you please. His liabilities are such that he must fail. Mary speaks so low that she is not heard. Vice stings us in our pleasures; but virtue consoles us in our pains. As cold waters are to a thirsty soul, so is good news from a far country. The cars have arrived, therefore we must go. Ye shall not eat of it, neither shall ye touch it lest ye die.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

In parsing a Conjunction, tell—

1. What part of speech ; (why ?)
2. To what class it belongs ;
3. What it connects ;
4. Give the rule.

“Peter *and* John went to the temple.” “*And*” is a Conjunction ; it is used to connect words or sentences ; Coördinate, because it connects similar elements ; it connects *Peter* and *John*, according to

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect words and propositions.

“Gold is more valuable *than* silver.” “*Than*” is a Conjunction ; it is used to connect words or propositions ; Subordinate, because it connects dissimilar elements ; it connects the proposition *than silver (is)* with *valuable*, according to

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect, &c.

“We must *either* obey *or* be punished.” “*Either*” is a Coördinate Conjunction, (alternative,) used to awaken expectation of an additional element, and also to introduce it with emphasis.

“*Or*” is a Coördinate Conjunction, (alternative,) and with its correlative *either* is used to connect the element *be punished* with *must obey*, according to

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect, &c.

“*Though* he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.” “*Though*” is a Subordinate Conjunction, (adversative,) used to awaken expectation of an additional idea.

“*Yet*” is a Subordinate Conjunction, (adversative,) and with its correlative *though* is used to connect the subordinate clause “*he will slay me,*” with the principal one, “*will I trust in him,*” according to

RULE XIV.—Conjunctions connect, &c.

Thomas and Henry are diligent pupils. You must study hard if you would obtain a high position in your class. Do you think that Robert will succeed? Sarah writes rapidly but very carelessly. You must get father's consent or I cannot go with you. I have not the means or I would accommodate you. Idleness and ignorance produce many vices. When sickness, infirmity or misfortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is proved. Either Charles or Robert saw him. George and John are more studious than William. I cannot doubt that he is an honest man. She fears lest it may not be true. Neither George nor James can do it.

There never was such a time for speculation of every kind as the present affords. Do you think Clay as able in debate as Webster? John can read as well as Thomas. Mr. Smith is so debilitated that he cannot walk. Rufus is not so wise as he supposed. Whether he will go or remain is not determined. I am debtor to both you and your brother, for many favors that I hope to be able to reciprocate. He assured us that not only his time, but also his character as an artist, was at stake. As the stars, so shall thy seed be. We do not expect to remain in town during the summer, but to visit Saratoga or some fashionable resort. In Russia as well as almost every other country, the peasantry constitute the greatest number.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a Coördinate Conjunction. Five containing an example of a Subordinate Conjunction.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Conjunction?

What is said of a Pure Conjunction?

What is its office?

How many kinds of Connective words are there?

Tell the difference.

How are Conjunctions classed?

What is a Coördinate Conjunction?

—— Subordinate?

What is said of Coördinate Connectives?

How are they divided?

What is a Copulative Conjunction?

Adversative? Alternative?

How are Subordinate Conjunctions divided?

EXCLAMATIONS.

§ 264. An Exclamation is a word used to express some sudden emotion of the mind; e. g., “O, haste my father’s heart to cheer!”

EXPLANATION.—As the Exclamation is not a sign of thought, but merely an expression of emotion, it cannot have any definable signification, or grammatical construction.

LIST OF EXCLAMATIONS.

§ 265. The following is a list of the principal Exclamations:

O! Oh! ah! eh! ha! hah! aha! alas! alack! hold! ho! shame! hail! lo! look! see! hush! hist! fie! foh! pshaw!

pugh! fudge! tush! tut! hey! heyday! heigh-ho! mum!
 avaut! avast! away! bah! huzza! hurra! hallo! hem! adieu!
 bravo! indeed! welcome! what! strange! farewell!

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Some words belonging to other classes are called *Exclamations* when uttered in an unconnected and forcible manner; e. g., Strange! wonderful! away!

REMARK 2.—*O* should be used only before words in direct address or to express a wish;—*Oh*, when you wish to express pain, sorrow or surprise; e. g., “*O* virtuel!” “*Oh*! how can it be?”

REMARK 3.—The exclamation is equivalent to a simple sentence or an abbreviated sentence; e. g., Farewell—“go well.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Exclamations in the following exercises:

MODEL.—“Alas! he died in early years.” *Alas* is the Exclamation. “An exclamation is a word used to express some sudden emotion of the mind.”

O Lord! how great is thy goodness! O fie! what are you grumbling about? Welcome! my dearest friend. Hold boys! now for fun. Pugh! that fellow is a goose. Indeed! it is Matilda herself. Pshaw! try it again. Hush! I will not hear you speak thus. Alas! when evil abounds life has no pleasure. O sun! whence thy rising beams? O, make my grave where the sunbeams rest! Alas! my poor country. Really! is it true? Hah! I have caught you now. Dear me! what are you doing? Alas! the remedy came too late to avail. O, I shall love the sea because it is his grave. Hark! they whisper, angels say, “Sister spirit! come away!” He died, alas! in

early youth far from home and friends. How different would have been our lot this day, both as men and citizens, had the Revolution failed of success!

“Alas! when evil men are strong,
No life is good, no pleasure long.”

MODEL FOR PARSING.

To parse an Exclamation, tell—

1. What part of speech; (why?)
2. Give the rule.

“O, lightly, lightly tread!” “O” is an Exclamation; it is used to express some sudden emotion of the mind; it has no grammatical connection with any other word.

RULE XV.—Exclamations have no grammatical relation to other words.

O sister! I want that beautiful flower. Alas! my mother died, and left me an orphan to the kindness of strangers. O Jane! how could you do as you have done? O virtue! how amiable thou art! Hold! where are you going so fast this morning? Indeed! it was very fortunate for you. Mercy! what are you about? Fudge! I do not care what they say. Adieu, my friend! may we meet again! Farewell! may happiness attend your path! Astonishing! what do you mean? Hush! do you want the town to hear you? Hist! what noise was that? Heyday! what next? Hush! the tutor is at the door. Mum! can you keep a secret? Shame! would you kill the poor dog? Dear me! you are very lucky. See! this is just what I wanted. Bravo! that was well done.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of an Exclamation of wonder. Five containing an Exclamation of joy. Five of earnest wishing, or vocative address. Five of laughter. Five of calling to silence. Five of pain. Five of parley.

QUESTIONS.

What is an Exclamation ?

What its grammatical relation ?

How should *O* be used ? *Oh* ?

To what is an Exclamation equivalent ?

WORDS BELONGING TO DIFFERENT CLASSES.

§ 266. Many words are alike in form, but belong to different classes. They are distinguished by their use and meaning.

§ 267. The following table embraces those commonly used in this manner.

As is an adverb when joined to an adverb or an adjective, in the sense of *so*; e. g., "James does as well as he can."

In all other cases it is a conjunction; e. g., "Robert did as he was directed."

BUT, in the sense of *only*, is an adverb; e. g., "But one person was present." In the sense of *except*, it is a preposition; e. g., "All but Henry came."

In all other cases it is a conjunction; e. g., "Henry asked me to go, but I declined."

EITHER is a conjunction when it corresponds to *or* ; e. g.,
 "Either the one or the other."

In all other cases it is an adjective ; e. g., "Either book."

FOR, in the sense of *because*, is a conjunction ; e. g., "I will go, for he calls me."

In all other cases it is a preposition ; e. g., "Alfred brought the book for me."

MUCH is a noun when it stands for quantity ; e. g., "Much has been given."

When joined to a noun it is an adjective ; e. g., "Much labor fatigues us."

In all other cases it is an adverb ; e. g., "Mary's friends were much concerned."

MORE is a noun when it implies quantity ; e. g., "The more we have, the more we want."

When it modifies a noun it is an adjective ; e. g., "The more joy I have, the more I want."

Used in comparison it is an adverb ; e. g., "My pupil is more obedient than yours."

NOTWITHSTANDING is used as a preposition ; e. g., "Notwithstanding his merit, he was but little esteemed."

It is also a conjunction ; e. g., "He is respected, notwithstanding he is poor."

THAT is a relative when *who* or *which* may be substituted for it and the sense remain the same ; e. g., "This is the man *that* (who) came by the cars last evening."

When joined to a noun it is an adjective ; e. g., "That man is intelligent."

In all other cases it is a conjunction ; e. g., "I tell you that you must study."

THEN, in the sense of *therefore*, is a conjunction ; e. g., “If he has commanded it, then I must obey.”

When it refers to time it is an adverb ; e. g., “I rest not, then, on this argument.”

WHAT is a relative when the antecedent is indefinite ; e. g., “He got what he wanted.”

When joined to a noun it is an adjective ; e. g., “What man is that ?”

When used to express wonder it is an exclamation ; e. g., “What ! take my money ?”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—*But* is an adverb when *only* may be used in its place. It has been made to assume this meaning by the omission of the negative which was originally used with it ; e. g., Our light affliction, which is *not* “but for a moment.”

REMARK 2.—It is asserted by some grammarians that *that*, in all those cases in which it is called a conjunction, is merely a pronoun, standing for a sentence or part of a sentence. They resolve this sentence, “I wish you to believe that I would not hurt a fly,” in the following manner ; “I would not hurt a fly ; I wish you to believe that *assertion*.” What would Horne Took say to this ?

REMARK 3.—In such sentences as the following, *so* and *so as* are usually considered conjunctions ; e. g., “She is as amiable as her sister ;” “No lamb was e’er so mild as he.” In these sentences *as* and *so* properly are adverbs, used instead of adjuncts.

S Y N T A X .

§ 268. Syntax treats of the Construction of Propositions, their Connection and Dependence.

§ 269. A Proposition consists of a Subject and Predicate.

§ 270. The Subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed; e. g., “*John runs.*”

§ 271. The Predicate expresses what is affirmed of the Subject; e. g., “*John runs.*”

O B S E R V A T I O N S .

REMARK 1.—The word affirm, as here used, includes all the various significations of the verb, as expressed by the different moods and tenses.

REMARK 2.—The name of the object addressed does not form a part of the proposition; e. g., “*William, John runs.*”

REMARK 3.—In interrogations, the subject is often placed after the verb; e. g., “*What says the professor?*”

E X E R C I S E S .

Point out the Subject and Predicate in the following propositions;—tell how you know them.

MODEL.—“*John runs*” is a Proposition, because it contains a Subject and Predicate.

"*John*" is the Subject, because it is that of which the Proposition speaks.

"*Runs*" is the Predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the Subject *John*.

Horses gallop. Children play. Boys recite. God exists. Charles writes. Alfred swims. Sarah rejoices. Susan walks. Man sins. Death comes. Virtue triumphs. Dogs bark. Mary reads. Birds sing. Water flows. Logicians reason. Bees hum. William saw. Politicians dispute. Memory fails. Exercises were written. James recited to his sister. Mary corresponds with her brother. Rufus escaped punishment. Where is John? Stay with me until sister returns. Blessed are the peacemakers. What is man?

Ink fades. Henry was a scholar. James, bring me a book. Study your lesson. Where are you going? Honor thy father and thy mother. Hannah is a grammarian. Washington was a general. Hope is the balm of life. Contentment is a great blessing. Richard is the life of the company. The sky is quite clear. The river is deep and rapid. When will William return from college? Did you see Stone Mountain? Apples will soon be ripe. Robert has bought a new cap.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

1. Write Predicates to the following subjects.

MODEL.—Children *play*. Dogs *bark*. Fish *swim*.

Henry. Religion. Knowledge. Happiness. Father. Virtue. Grammar. Man. Thomas. Horses. Fruit. Temptation. Rain. George. Prospect. Flowers. Garden. Orchard. Fox. Arithmetic. Money. Intemperance. Labor. Columbus. Washington. Moon. Armies. Stars. Insects. Grass. Winter. Autumn. Historians. Night. Philosophy.

2. Write Subjects to the following predicates.

MODEL.—*Wrestling* is dangerous. *Charles* reads. *Washington* conquered.

Was a philosopher; strengthens; are plants; differ; determined; was cruel; was a poet; prevails; was divided; is wise; were temperate; is a teacher; are deep and rapid; is delighted; must come; showed to advantage; saw the transaction; wrote the letter; is my warmest friend; should be the study of all men; is the best preserver of health; taught him to write; was the life of the company; was attentive to his business.

SUBJECT.

§ 272. The Subject of a Proposition is either Grammatical or Logical.

§ 273. The Grammatical Subject is either a noun, or some word standing in the place of a noun; e. g., “*John* spoke to William;” “*He* was reading the paper.”

§ 274. The Logical Subject consists of the Grammatical with its various modifications; e. g., “*A cheerful temper* affords great delight;” “*The love of industry* is commendable.”

REMARK.—When the Grammatical Subject is not modified, it is the same as the Logical; e. g., “*Thomas* writes exercises.”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Grammatical and Logical Subjects in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“*Brother William* wrote to uncle yesterday.” “*Brother*” is the Grammatical Subject. “The Grammatical Subject is either a Noun or some word standing in place of a noun.”

“*Brother William*” is the Logical Subject. “The Logical Subject consists of the Grammatical, with its various modifications.”

“The love of industry is commendable.” “*Love*” is the Grammatical Subject. “The Grammatical Subject is,” &c.

“*The love of industry*” is the Logical Subject. “The Logical Subject consists,” &c.

Truth is more wonderful than fiction. An honest man is God’s noblest work. Foster studies to improve his mind. Alfred has prepared the recitation. Bad boys often do wrong. A cheerful temper affords great delight. The old man has melons for sale. Do you want any? Unripe fruit is not wholesome. Children should obey their parents. The prospect before the lawn was much admired by the stranger. John’s exercises were badly written. Sarah Jane’s composition is not only neatly written, but correctly punctuated. Industry is the best substitute for genius. William rises early in the morning. Rufus speaks the language of truth. Joseph’s brethren came and bowed down before him. Minnie went after her slate. A walk in the field in the summer season is refreshing. Hasty promises are seldom kept. Future time is yet to come. Corrupt conversation should be avoided. By framing excuses, he prolonged his stay. Either road will conduct you to the right place. Protest not rashly. A part of the men were lost. The council were divided in their sentiments. Cicero, the orator, flourished in the time of Catiline.

§ 275. The subject of a proposition is either Simple or Compound.

§ 276. A Simple Subject is a single noun, or word standing for a noun, either alone or variously modified; e. g., “*Life* is short;” “*The longest life of man* is short.”

REMARK.—The modified simple subject is called, by some writers, the *complex subject*.

§ 277. A Compound Subject consists of two or more simple subjects to which one predicate belongs; e. g., “*The moon and stars* were shining bright;” “*This most excellent man, and that consummate villain,* were born in the same town.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Subject in the following propositions;—tell whether it is Simple or Compound.

MODEL.—“*The longest life of man* is short.” “*The longest life of man*” is the Subject. It is Simple, because it consists of but one term.

“*This most excellent man, and that consummate villain,* were born in the same town.” “*This most excellent man, and that consummate villain,*” is the Subject. It is Compound, because it consists of more terms than one.

Time and tide wait for no man. John will remain here until Monday. Contentment and humility are rich blessings. The sea was very boisterous. Susan’s conduct towards her sister was generous in the extreme. John or James will start for the plantation in the morning. Kind and generous men are highly esteemed. Francis and Elizabeth are good pupils.

The regiment consists of a thousand men. Walking and riding are healthy exercises. John sold his watch yesterday. Exposure was the cause of his sickness. John and Thomas are of equal attainments. Virtue and vice are often treated alike.

Your estimate for the work is too high. The citizens have met to confer on interesting business. You and I can do it. What harm has Alfred done? Socrates the philosopher and friend to his country was condemned to death. Then rushed the steeds to battle driven. I lent my knife and pencil to Edwin. To prevent passion is easier than to calm it. In unity consists the welfare and security of society. William and Henry are brothers. Righteousness exalteth a nation. A mind open to flattery is always in danger. Day and night shall not cease. Human knowledge is progressive. Have William and George violated the pledge?

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION

Write five sentences containing an example of a Simple Subject. Write five containing an example of a Compound Subject.

MODIFIED SUBJECT.

§ 278. Words are said to modify or limit each other, when they serve to explain, describe, enlarge, restrict, or otherwise qualify their meaning.

§ 279. The Grammatical Subject may be modified or limited in different ways :

1. By a noun in apposition annexed for explanation; e. g., “Mucius the *augur* related many things;” “Brother *James* has gone to New Orleans.”

2. By a noun in the possessive case; e. g., “*William’s* prospect brightens daily;” “*Washington’s* army, after repeated difficulties, conquered.”

3. By an adjunct; e. g., “The love *of money* prevailed.” “The voice *of truth* will be heard.”

4. By an adjective or participle; e. g., “*A* horse neighs;” “*The* flowers fade;” “*Short* pleasure produces *long* pain;” “*All* men die;” “He *shouting* made the onset.”

5. By a relative clause; e. g., “The man *who risks the least*, is not always the most safe;” “The boy *who studies* will improve.”

6. By an infinitive; e. g., “A desire *to improve* is commendable;” “A disposition *to excel* will stimulate him to exertion.”

7. By an entire clause; e. g., “The opinion *that the republican form of government* is the best is no longer problematical;” “A belief *that God is merciful* affords consolation.”

REMARK.—A noun may be modified in any of the above ways, even when it is not the grammatical subject; e. g., “Washington, the Father of his country, was beloved by all.” Here “*Father*” is modified by *the*. “The love of sound learning is commendable.” Here “*learning*” is modified by *sound*. “I know his devotion to the study of the works of nature.” Here *devotion* is modified by the adjunct *to the study*; *study* is modified by the adjunct *of the works*; and *works*, by the adjunct *of nature*.

EXERCISES.

Point out the Subject in each of the following propositions;—tell whether it is Simple or Compound, and how modified.

Nero, the emperor, was a cruel tyrant. Bonaparte's energy was remarkable. A stream of smoke and flame issued from the roof of the house. The whole course of his life was distinguished by the desire to do good. Has Charles abandoned the enterprise? The class are studying Modern History. Peter and John went up into the temple. Socrates and Plato were Grecian philosophers. James and William will spend Christmas with their aunt in Columbia. The virtuous and the good are often neglected. The patriarch Jacob stood in the presence of the king. A cool breeze in the summer is refreshing. The rose which bloomed has faded. The love of sound learning is commendable. An earnest wish for vacation was expressed by the school.

The sound of the signal-gun broke the stillness of the night. The bird which John killed had built a nest in the wall. The gentleman who was so kind to us, when we were in the city, died of the fever. He who shuns vice generally practices virtue. An indulgent teacher very often does not punish when it is deserved. The man who gave Robert that book was an intimate friend of his mother. The Romans who conquered the world, could not conquer themselves. James rose early and finished his exercises. The fact that he was a brilliant speaker was noticed by all. Mary and her sister intend to study French next session. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as their chief good.

Who was the author of Junius' letters has never been accurately determined. The bill was presented in proper form. Peter the hermit made a pilgrimage. The light of the gospel shall shed its cheering beams on distant lands. He escaped from the flames with much difficulty. The rolling stone gathers no moss. The angry billows dashed against the side of the vessel. Sarah, who has finished her task, is ready

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for recitation. A disposition to befriend the poor should be carefully cultivated. Howard is justly celebrated for his philanthropy. Jane's pencil is on the desk by the window. Franklin was a man of industrious habits. The eager multitude were enchained by the fascination of his eloquence. John's intention to study law was unknown to his friend. Henry and Thomas shall be rewarded for their industry and good conduct.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a Subject modified by a Noun in Apposition. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by a Noun in the Possessive Case. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by an Adjunct. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by a Definitive Adjective. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by a Descriptive Adjective. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by a Participle. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by an Infinitive. Five containing an example of a Subject modified by an Entire Clause.

MODIFICATION OF MODIFYING WORDS.

§ 280. Modifying or Limiting Words may themselves be modified.

§ 281. A Noun modifying the subject, may be modified in all the ways in which the subject is modified.

§ 282. An Adjective may be modified:

1. By an Adjunct; e. g., "Father repeatedly admonished us not to be weary *of well doing*." "Demosthenes was superior *to Æschines* in eloquence."

2. By an Adverb; e. g., "That *very* large tree has fallen." "*Truly* good citizens are often censured."

3. By an Infinitive; e. g., "Be ready *to hear*, but slow *to decide*." "James is ready *to go*."

§ 283. An Adverb may be modified:

1. By an Adjunct; e. g., "It was agreeably *to his disposition*."

2. By another Adverb; e. g., "William spoke *more* openly than Robert." "Yours *very* sincerely."

REMARK.—A modified grammatical subject, regarded as a complex idea, may be modified; e. g., "*The old black horse* is dead."

EXERCISES.

Point out the Modifying Words in the following exercises; show how they are modified.

MODEL.—"A crayon is useful for drawing and sketching."

"*Useful*" is modified by the adjunct *for drawing and sketching*,—useful for drawing and sketching.

The professor noticed your book quite recently. The wish for happiness is very general. Prejudice may shut your ears, but be assured that the voice of truth will be heard. Nothing is more true than that all bad books have a pernicious tendency. Washington was superior to most men in perseverance and courage. Mohammed was distinguished for the dignity and majesty of his person. There are many men who waste their lives in idleness and crime. Howard Caldwell is a young man

of distinguished talent. Henry was always a studious pupil. Martha is leading a very unhappy life in consequence of her sister's conduct. David Ewart was highly esteemed when in college. All men of integrity are respected. William was always ardently devoted to study. John is ready to recite. All good boys love their parents. Robert is expected to return long before night. Your book was published quite recently.

That large dog has bitten Rover. Wonderful to relate, he was punctual to his promise for once. The first two verses were sung. Collins, a lad of promise, was educated by a benevolent citizen of Mobile. Barns, the Daguerrian, took an excellent copy of the picture. You will find a gold pen very useful in writing. A very large tree has blown down across the road. That which is very difficult to be performed is often praiseworthy in execution. The man who violates the commandments of God is deserving of punishment. The love of money will yet prove his destruction. Robert is leading a very profligate life. Julia's sister Sarah is the most idle girl in her class. Men of honor command the respect of their acquaintances. The patriarch Abraham was accounted faithful. The great navigator Columbus was ungratefully treated by his country. The emperor Antonius wrote an excellent book.

Avarice is incompatible with reason. Washington, the first president, is buried on the banks of the Potomac. The English language is more widely spoken than the French. Cæsar having reached the pinnacle of human greatness, perished by assassination. You cannot prize a good education too highly. The wind wails mournfully through the trees. The poet Milton, who was blind, possessed a mind well stored with knowledge. Your conduct is highly criminal. Misfortune is the lot of all men in this life of uncertainty and cares. A disposition to

love our enemies needs to be cultivated. The American fleet has arrived, and will enter port in a few days. Summer showers quickly pass. The brave soldier performs his duty with alacrity and delight. An address may be expected in the chapel by one of the faculty.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a Noun modifying the Subject, modified by an Adjunct. Five, by an Adjective or Participle.

Write five sentences containing an example of an Adjective, modified by an Adjunct. Five, by an Adverb. Five, by an Infinitive.

Write five sentences containing an example of an Adverb, modified by another Adverb. Five, by an Adjunct.

PREDICATE.

§ 284. The Predicate, like the Subject, is either Grammatical or Logical.

§ 285. The Predicate consists of two parts,—the *Verb* or *Copula*, and that which is asserted by it called the *Attribute*; e. g., “*Snow is white.*”

EXPLANATION.—The Copula is some modification of the verb *to be*; its office is to assert an attribute of the thing to which it belongs.

REMARK.—The copula gives vitality to language; no sentence can be formed without it. Any number of attributes joined to a subject without

it, would not form a proposition. The omission of this important connective is that which distinguishes the first attempts of children to utter their thoughts; e. g., “*Candy good,*” instead of “*Candy is good.*”

§ 286. When the two parts of the predicate are united in one word, that word is always a verb; e. g., “*Matilda paints.*”

EXPLANATION.—It often happens that the *Attribute* and *Copula* are united in one word; e. g., “*Birds sing,*” (are singing.)

NOTE.—When the predicate contains the copula and attribute in one word, it may always be resolved into these parts.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—Verbs that contain the copula and attribute are sometimes called *attributive* verbs, because the attribute is included in them.

REMARK 2.—The verb *to be* is sometimes an attributive verb; it then denotes existence, and is commonly preceded by *there*, and followed by its subject; e. g., “*There are horses.*” “*Horses exist.*”

REMARK 3.—Besides the verb *to be*, there are several others which do not complete the predicate, but take after them some word denoting a property of the subject; e. g., “*Daguerrians are becoming numerous.*” “*Emma is called handsome.*”

NOTE.—These verbs are sometimes called *copulative verbs*. They are such as *become, seem, appear*, and the passive forms of *deem, style, name, call, consider, &c.*

EXERCISES.

Point out the Grammatical and Logical Predicate in the following exercises.

MODEL.—“William writes long letters.”

“*Writes*” is the Grammatical Predicate. The Grammatical Predicate is either a verb alone, or the copula with a noun or adjective. In this proposition it is a verb alone.

“*Writes long letters*” is the Logical Predicate. The Logical Predicate consists of the Grammatical with its various modifications. In this proposition the grammatical predicate “*writes*” is modified by the noun *letters*, and the noun *letters* by the adjective *long*.

Distrust often excites deceitfulness in children. You cannot improve without labor and attention. Your brother Henry will be rewarded for his patience and industry. Obstinacy and folly are twin sisters. William has perseverance enough to succeed. Have you considered the evils of civil war? Those men will always prove successful in their undertakings. This generation possesses greater advantages than the preceding. Robert drove the horses carelessly. Great plans were conceived by the multitude. A treaty was concluded between the contending parties. Henry will never be forsaken by his friends under any emergency. Your residence is beautifully situated. Mechanics are beneficial to society. The criminal implored the mercy of the court. An ambitious spirit is not commendable at all times.

That witness is unacquainted with facts in the case. Any man with prudence and economy may thrive. The tongue of slander often blasts the fairest reputation. The insurance company is responsible for the damages caused by the late fire. Preston, the distinguished orator of the South, will visit Italy in the spring. John has accepted the invitation to attend the

picnic. The house is old and worthless. Uncle has lost the horse he prized so much. Algebra is too difficult a study for so small a boy. This region of country seems to be well timbered. Prudence is the best security against want.

The idler is preparing the way for sorrow. Father will come if he can. Mary will attend the concert this evening. Are you able to resist the poison of flattery? James was guilty of rude and improper behavior. A trifle will put him in a passion. Robert is too weak to bear much fatigue. Richelieu was the most skilful statesman of his time. The affairs of others do not concern me. Your friends and mine are of the same opinion. Time is too precious to be spent in trifles. Lend me the first volume of Gibbon's Rome. Insert a compound personal pronoun. Martha's brother was punished by her teacher. Washington defeated the British at Yorktown. The Russians have destroyed the Turkish fleet. Never enter the school room in a noisy manner. Captain Cook was killed by the savages. Pride and interest are often united. Honor and fame are the offspring of labor.

§ 287. The Predicate, like the Subject, is either Simple or Compound.

§ 288. A Simple Predicate is one that contains a single finite verb; e. g., "*John saw Robert with his mother.*"

§ 289. A Compound Predicate consists of two or more simple predicates belonging to the same subject; e. g., "*John saw Robert with his mother, and spoke to him.*"

EXERCISES.

Point out the Predicate in the following propositions;—tell whether it is Simple or Compound.

MODEL.—“Henry wishes to enter college next fall.”

The Predicate is Simple, because it consists of a finite verb.

“Henry wishes to enter college next fall, and graduate in the course of two years.”

The Predicate is Compound, because it consists of two Simple Predicates belonging to the same subject.

Man is wicked by nature and corrupt by practice. William has come in compliance with your request, and will now attend to what you desired. Can you read well and write legibly? Henry gave an account of the whole difficulty. We will ride to the city, or walk to the village. Father will commend and reward you for your diligence. John or Thomas was the author of the mischief. Harry can run, hop, skip, and jump. Robert or James turned over the inkstand on the desk. Jesse caught and saddled the pony. I will write the letter and send it without delay. You must do nothing to sully your reputation. The goods will be sold much below the regular price. Jane was recommended to walk a mile every morning. We were disappointed and chagrined at his conduct.

Horses are very useful animals. Rufus was one of the company. Thomas directed the letter and gave it to the clerk. The man saw Thomas in the garden at work. Henry loves his sister and takes great care of her. Robert and his father have come to visit their friends. My friend Thomas resides in New Haven. Men of prudence and discretion act after mature deliberation. The children all desire to go to the museum this evening. Edwin has a strong desire to learn, and will

succeed. We have reflected on the subject, and are prepared to give you a distinct answer. Father wishes Mary to improve. Charles always finds time to prepare his recitation. I honor you for your frankness and candor. Has your father sold his crop?

The Spartan youths were accustomed to go barefoot. Matilda plays and sings well. Can Thomas read? Avarice is a contemptible and sordid vice. Trust in God implies a belief in him. The devils believe and tremble. Will you attend to the business yourself? Hope, the balm of life, was our greatest comforter. You may always look for a calm after a storm. The merchant sold out his stock and purchased again. James will rectify the error and correct any mistakes. Robert was laughed at for the folly of his conduct. The slanderer is beneath contempt. His attempt to rescue his friend was fatal to himself. He desired to have an interview with the minister. No one ought unnecessarily to wound the feelings of his friend or insult his religious prepossessions.

MODIFIED PREDICATE.

§ 290. The Grammatical Predicate may be modified or limited in different ways:

1. By a Noun or Pronoun in the same case as the Subject; e. g., "He was called *John*." "She moves a *goddess*." "It is *he*."

2. By a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case; e. g., "Henry struck *James*." "I saw *them*."

3. By an Adjective relating to the subject; e. g., "Washington was *wise*." "The general was *brave*."

4. By an Adjunct; e. g., “Henry wrote *to Thomas*.” “The man came *from the city*.”

5. By an Adverb; e. g., “John writes *rapidly*.” “William speaks *carelessly*.”

6. By an Infinitive; e. g., “Robert wishes *to excel*.” “Edward called *to see James*.”

7. By a Dependent Clause; e. g., “We hope that *he is a good man*.” “Father wishes you *to improve*.”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—An infinitive or participle may be modified like the verb of the predicate.

REMARK 2.—A modifying clause, if a dependent proposition, may be modified in both its subject and predicate as other propositions.

REMARK 3.—All other words used to modify the predicate, may themselves be modified in any of the ways mentioned under the article, “*Modification of Modifying Words*.”

REMARK 4.—Several modifications are sometimes connected with the same predicate.

EXERCISES.

Analyze the following propositions;—show how the Predicate is modified.

MODEL.—“Demosthenes was an orator.”

“*Demosthenes was an orator*” is a Proposition, because it contains a Subject and Predicate.

“*Demosthenes*” is the Subject, and “*was an orator*” the Predicate. The attribute “*orator*” is modified by the definitive *an*,—“*an orator*.”

“They marched into the city.”

“*They marched into the city*” is a Proposition, because it contains a Subject and Predicate.

"*They*" is the Subject, and "*marched*" the Predicate. In this proposition the predicate is modified by the adjunct "*into the city*." "*City*" is modified by the definitive *the*,—"the city."

"John writes rapidly."

"*John writes rapidly*" is a Proposition, because it contains a Subject and Predicate.

"*John*" is the Subject, and "*writes*" the Predicate. "*Writes rapidly*" is the Modified Predicate. Here "*writes*" is modified by *rapidly*.

Send James to his mother. Mary's kitten is very playful. Bonaparte was born in Corsica. Father wishes that you would call at the store in the morning. The teacher says that Robert improves rapidly. Henry has determined to go to Boston. Do you think that he is a good man? The grass grows very rapidly since the rain. Mother says that labor conquers all things. Iceland is a very cold country. Rufus became a great favorite among the boys. Some men are envious of other people. William and Thomas said that the books were theirs. Richard has gone to Philadelphia to procure a situation. The pupils have been attentive to the lesson.

Edward's father depends on him for a support. The gentleman was unable to ascertain how his money had been recovered. To treat our enemies kindly is the surest way to make them our friends. To know God and serve him, should be the great object of our existence. The young ladies write very neatly. His name shall be called John. James writes with much accuracy. Paul, the apostle, wrote many epistles. John is very fond of his studies. The musician plays well on the flute. The man has gone into the house. Doctor Garland has been elected president of the Southern University. The company traveled very pleasantly. The gun went off unexpectedly.

Wildridge found the horse in the field by the house. The farmer is about to go to market. The speaker aimed to

be pathetic. John and Henry have gone to school. The son and daughter of the emigrant were drowned crossing the river. The elephant's sagacity amused the children. They were commanded to return to their own country. Washington served his country in the army before the Revolution. Did William and Samuel arrive in time to witness the performance? The Atlantic Ocean is three thousand miles broad.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of the Grammatical Predicate modified by a Noun or Pronoun in the same case as the Subject. Five, by a Noun or Pronoun in the objective case. Five, by an Adjective relating to the subject. Five, by an Adjunct. Five, by an Adverb. Five, by an Infinitive. Five, by a Dependent clause.

STRUCTURE OF SENTENCES.

§ 291. A Sentence is an assemblage of words so arranged as to constitute a distinct proposition; e. g., “*Horses run ;*” “*Thomas writes exercises.*”

CLASSIFICATION.

§ 292. Sentences are of four kinds :—*Declarative, Interrogative, Exclamatory, and Imperative.*

§ 293. A Declarative Sentence is one in which any thing is simply affirmed, or denied of the subject; e. g., “*Time flies ;*” “*Alexander will not study.*”

§ 294. An Interrogative Sentence is one in which a question is asked; e. g., “*Do the winds blow?*” “*Who hath believed our report?*”

§ 295. An Exclamatory Sentence is one in which something surprising is expressed, or in which full utterance is given to some sudden or strong emotion; e. g., “*There stands the bravest of the brave!*” “*May my tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth!*”

§ 296. An Imperative Sentence is one in which a command is expressed; e. g., “*Blow winds, blow;*” “*Buy the truth and sell it not.*”

EXERCISES.

Point out the different kind of Sentences in the following exercises.

The stores of his mind were inexhaustible. What arithmetic is most extensively used in the South? His language is as difficult of disentanglement as the gnarled oak. Farewell! may happiness attend your path! Be quick, and bring me back word what he says. Which enjoy themselves best, idlers or industrious pupils? O, haste my father's heart to cheer! James studies well and is a very attentive pupil. History is a record of facts, as may be easily ascertained on examination. Stands the South true to her principles, or is she recreant? Did James go with Thomas? Indeed! it is Matilda herself! To know God and serve him is the great end of our being. The united forces of the Americans and French besieged Yorktown, and took Cornwallis and the English army prisoners.

Hail! holy light! offspring of heaven's first-born! Jane, where have you laid the scissors? Order John to saddle Turk. Oh! how our hearts were beating! What is chancellor Ma-

son's opinion on this point? Fabius, the Roman general, had so much caution in avoiding a battle with Hannibal, that he was most unjustly accused of cowardice. How fiercely the wind blows this morning! The body is mortal; the soul immortal. Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man. A proper love for our country and the human race is consistent. Who wrote my name on the blackboard? Write the following examples on your slates.

Perform your duty faithfully, for this will procure you the blessings of Heaven. The want of some pursuit to occupy our time is often productive of evil. Do you expect to spend your winter in Charleston? Study to adapt yourself to the circumstances with which you are surrounded. Oh! that men should put an enemy into their mouths to steal away their brains! What! will these hands never be clean? Religion, rightly understood and practised, has the purest of all joys attending it. The science of criticism may be considered as a middle link, connecting the different parts of education into a regular chain. Every person's safety requires that he should submit to be governed; for if one man may do harm without suffering punishment, every man has the same right, and no person can be safe.

§ 297. A Sentence may consist either of one proposition, or of two or more propositions connected together; e. g., "*James is industrious.*" "*Thomas will assist you, when he comes home.*"

§ 298. A sentence consisting of but one proposition is called a Simple Sentence; e. g., "*Cicero delivered four orations against Catiline.*"

§ 299. A sentence consisting of two or more propositions is called a Compound Sentence, and the propositions, of which it is composed, its *members* or *clauses* ; e. g., “*Age increases the desire of living, though it lessens the enjoyments of life.*”

EXERCISES.

Tell whether the sentences in the following exercises are Simple or Compound, and why.

“*The lamp burns dimly,*” is a Simple Sentence, because it consists of but one proposition.

“*War makes rogues, and peace hangs them,*” is a Compound Sentence, because it consists of more propositions than one.

Thomas has perseverance and ability enough to succeed in anything. You must do it, because it is my wish. Foster will come if he can spare the time. Robert’s attention to business and blameless conduct have already secured the regard of his associates. If time is money, wasting it must be prodigality. I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny the charge. I will walk, but you may ride. We must resist to arms, or our liberties will be lost. James, bring me your book, and I will assist you in learning the lesson. While the bridegroom tarried, they all slumbered and slept. I said it to George, and I will repeat it to you. The man begged us to assist him. If he will repent, he may yet be pardoned. We listened to the music of the running waters, and the sweet melody of the birds. The science of mathematics performs more than it promises.

I must go if you command me. Do you think that you can obtain your mother’s consent to visit us in the spring? You

must not be too eager in the pursuit of riches, for they are attended with a thousand cares, from which at present you are exempt. Frank loves his brother John, because he is kind to him. Experience is a surer guide than imagination. As a bird that wandereth from her nest, so is a man that wandereth from his place. Moses built the tabernacle as he was commanded. If the blessings of our political and social condition have not been too highly estimated, we cannot well overrate the responsibilities they impose on us.

We shall be rewarded for our diligence and perseverance. The love of praise should be properly kept under. If Jane is indolent, she must be punished. Mary feared the displeasure of God more than the frowns of her companions. Example is more convincing than precept. Every day brought us intelligence of some new disaster. Revelation teaches us how we may obtain happiness here and hereafter. We sometimes forget our faults, when we are not reminded of them. Love not sleep, lest thou come to poverty. Indifference to the ordinary pursuits of life is indicative of a defective judgment. You could not convince him by any argument. Straws swim on the surface, but pearls lie at the bottom.

INDEPENDENT AND DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

§ 300. The members of a compound sentence are either *Independent* or *Dependent*.

REMARK.—The clauses of a compound sentence are sometimes called Coördinate and Subordinate.

§ 301. An Independent Clause is one that

makes sense by itself; e. g., “*Alfred and William left town.*”

§ 302. A Dependent Clause is one that makes complete sense only in connection with another; e. g., “*Alfred and William left town, when the sun set.*”

EXPLANATION.—“Alfred and William left town, when the sun set.” In this sentence, “*When the sun set*” is a dependent clause, because it does not make a complete sense unless joined with the other clause.

§ 303. The member of a compound sentence, on which the other members depend, is called the *Leading Clause*; its subject, the *Leading Subject*; and its verb, the *Leading Verb*.

REMARK.—The Subordinate Clause is often placed first; e. g., “*When he comes, I will go.*” “*If mother is willing, you may stay.*”

EXERCISES.

Point out the Independent and Dependent Clauses in the following exercises;—tell the Leading Subject, and the Leading Verbs.

MODEL.—“If mother is willing, you may stay.”

“*You may stay,*” is the Independent or Leading Clause; and “*If mother is willing,*” the *Dependent* or *Subordinate*. “*You*” is the Leading Subject, and “*may stay,*” the Leading Verb.

We love him, because he first loved us. I have not heard whether he intends to remain. Rufus is not in the garden, but he is at school. The lion killed his keeper, because he took

away his food. William and Thomas read, but they cannot write. Ignorance moves our pity, and that modifies our aversion. If we have not always time to read, we have time to reflect. I will soon come to you, if I go away. You must not go in the yard to play, until you have learned your lesson for Monday. The academy is large but not well situated. The poor is hated even of his own neighbor, but the rich hath many friends. The eyes of the Lord are in every place, beholding the evil and the good. We know that we live, but vegetables do not. This wall is high, but that tree is higher. If the parcel is too heavy, let them carry it by turns. We act foolishly, if we waste our time. Righteousness exalteth a nation, but sin is a reproach to any people. Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a downfall.

The slothful man sayeth, "There is a lion in the way." Henry will be ruined, unless he change his course. When the righteous are in authority, the people rejoice. I cannot believe that Frank is dishonest. Mary did not observe Sarah, till she had spoken. The wicked flee when no man pursues. If your friend travels there, you should do so too. Do you know whether Henry has gone? If your sister comes, by all means ask her to wait for me. Iron sinks in water, but floats in quicksilver. Bonaparte said that England was a nation of shopkeepers. Men are animals, but all animals are not men. Henry is afraid to ask, for he has been idle all the week. James does not write as well as he reads. Though Cousin Thomas is convalescent, he is afraid to venture out.

A man who has no sense of religion cannot be trusted. Life is short at best, and it should be employed in doing good to all men. I was writing to Uncle William inviting him to spend the summer with us, when Henry came in from school. Common reports, if ridiculous rather than dangerous, are best con-

futed by neglect. Charity does not consist in speculative ideas alone, but in active benevolence. An idle man is a mere blank in creation. Father favored the undertaking, because the manager resembled his friend. True benevolence expands our love to God and man. By proper reflection we may be taught to correct what is erroneous and defective. Vivacity is often promoted by presenting a sensible object to the mind, instead of an intelligent one. His manners were not marked by politesse, but by an offensive hauteur.

CONNECTION OF CLAUSES.

§ 304. The members of a compound sentence may be connected by relatives, conjunctions, or adverbs; e. g.,

Relatives.—"That WHICH cannot be cured must be endured."

Conjunctions.—"The miser lives poor, THAT he may die rich."

Adverb.—"We shall go, WHEN the cars go."

EXPLANATION.—In the first sentence, the relative *which* not only stands as the subject of "*cannot be cured*," but also connects its clause with the leading clause; *that* connects the clauses in the second example, and *when* in the third.

NOTE.—When a clause connected by *that* can be regarded either as the subject or object of the verb in the leading clause, in construction it is equivalent to a noun, and the whole may be regarded as a simple sentence, though in form it is really compound. In the sentence "*That man should steal is base*," there are two clauses connected by *that*, constituting a compound sentence, and yet the dependent clause "*tha*

man should steal," is really the subject of *is*, and equivalent to a noun, thus viewed the whole may be regarded as a simple sentence. So also when the dependent clause is the object of the leading verb; e. g., "*I said that ye are gods*;" and so also when either the subject or predicate is modified by a relative clause.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The connecting word is sometimes omitted; e. g., "This is the book I lost; I suppose you found it," for, "This is the book *which* I lost; I suppose *that* you found it."

REMARK 2.—An infinitive with its subject is used without a connecting word; e. g., "I believe John *to be* an honest boy."

EXERCISES.

Point out the connecting words in the following exercises;—tell what they connect.

MODEL.—"Straws swim on the surface, but pearls lie at the bottom."

In this sentence "*but*" is the connective; it is used to connect the clauses "*Straws swim on the surface*," and "*Pearls lie at the bottom*."

The man who finds not satisfaction in himself, seeks for it in vain elsewhere."

In this sentence "*who*" is the connective; it stands as the subject of the relative clause, "*Who finds not satisfaction in himself*," and unites it with the noun "*man*."

"Robert will let you know, when he consults with his brother."

In this sentence "*when*" is the connective; it is used to unite the propositions "*Robert will let you know*," and "*He consults with his brother*."

Charles is a young man much respected by all who know him, for his good conduct and integrity. The soldier fled when danger appeared. The man we heard at the concert the

other evening, is the best musician that we ever heard. The man must travel in disguise, or he will be detected. If he is honest and industrious, we will give him steady employment for the year or longer, if we can agree. The lightning flashed and thunder pealed as if the world was about to come to an end, or some other calamity was to happen. Preston will not speak to James, because he offended him without a cause. Thomas will not approach George on that topic, as he knows that he does not like to converse about it. Rufus was sick in Elizabeth City, when we heard from him. Why do you ask that question? You know that I was not in the house when the difficulty took place.

Unhesitatingly, I give it as my opinion that it is better to suffer imposition than not to assist the needy. If you have committed a fault, sincerely repent of it. I have no idea that the report is true, but when Robert comes we shall learn the particulars. James remarked that he could not remain long on this visit, but he would come again next fall, if nothing prevented, and spend a month with us. When the sun shone out, I consented to remain. I think that Mary would have gone with us, if she had been invited. I met Robert yesterday as he was returning from Columbus. The company will fine him, unless he can offer a good excuse. Did you see the meteor when it fell? The lecture was not as interesting as I anticipated. When you visit Greensboro', I will return with you. The man who is prudent will endeavor to avoid danger. Robert had started when we reached there.

Henry understands what is necessary to be done, and I have no doubt, will attend to it. When James and William return, we will finish writing the exercises. The weather was fine and the roads were excellent, but we were unfortunate in the selection of our companions. It is said that beauty attracts

admiration, as honor applause. If we aim at nothing, we shall most certainly achieve nothing. Time is ever advancing, but never leaves behind the traces of its flight. Books that save the trouble of thinking are in great demand. When I was a child, I thought as a child; but when I became a man, I put away childish things. Could we have foreseen this difficulty, we might have avoided it. The author dreads the critic more than the criminal the judge. It is morally certain that we can accomplish nothing without effort.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five Declarative Sentences. Five, Interrogative. Five, Exclamatory. Five, Imperative. Write five Simple Sentences. Five, Compound Sentences. Write five sentences containing a clause connected by a Relative Clause. Five, containing a clause connected by an Adverb. Five, containing a clause connected by a Conjunction.

ABRIDGED PROPOSITIONS.

§ 305. An Abridged Proposition is one that has its predicate so changed as to destroy the affirmation; the finite verb becomes a participle, an infinitive, or is dropped.

REMARK.—In Abridged Propositions the connective is usually omitted; e. g., “*When the sun approaches, the snow melts away* ;” abridged, “*The sun approaching, the snow melts away.*”

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—When the subjects denote different objects, the subject of the subordinate clause may be used independently in the nominative case; e. g., “When *James* returned, *we* finished the lesson;” abridged, “*James having returned*, we finished the lesson.”

REMARK 2.—When the subjects denote the same object, the subject of the subordinate clause may be omitted; e. g., “When *I* saw their distress, *I* went to their relief;” abridged, “*Seeing their distress*, I went to their relief.”

REMARK 3.—When the attribute in the dependent clause consists of a noun or pronoun in the nominative case after the verb as a copula, it remains in the same case in the abridged form; e. g., “That he is a judge, is of no consequence;” abridged, “*His being a judge*, is of no consequence.” “I was not aware that he was a judge;” abridged, “I was not aware of his being a judge.”

NOTE.—The difference between these two modes of expression is this: In the full form, the idea contained in the dependent clause is *affirmed*; in the abridged, it is *assumed*.

REMARK 4.—When the dependent clause is the object of the verb in the leading clause, it may often be changed for an infinitive with a subject; e. g., “I know *that he is a scholar*;” abridged, “I know *him to be a scholar*.”

REMARK 5.—When both subjects are the same, that of the subordinate clause is omitted before the infinitive; e. g., “He wished *that he might go*;” abridged, “He wished *to go*.” “It is base *that one should steal*;” abridged, “It is base *to steal*.”

REMARK 6.—When the subject of the dependent clause is connected by *what*, *which*, *whom*, *whose*, *when*, *how*, and the

like, and relating to something yet future, is the same as that of the independent one, it is sometimes abridged by retaining the connecting word and omitting the subject before the infinitive; e. g., "I know not what I shall do;" abridged, "I know not what *to do*." "He knows where he will go;" abridged, "He knows where *to go*."

NOTE.—In this way are to be explained such phrases as "how to sing;"—"how can I sing?" or, "how should I sing?"

REMARK 7.—A dependent clause may often be abridged by substituting an equivalent qualifying word, or an adjunct; e. g., "The man *who is honest* will be respected;" "The *honest* man will be respected."—"When the sun arose, Columbus sailed from Palos;" "At sunrise, Columbus sailed from Palos."—"A man of wisdom will be esteemed;" "A wise man will be esteemed."

EXERCISES.

Abridge the Propositions in the following exercises as exemplified in the foregoing remarks.

That he is a young man is no crime. Father directed that the horse should be saddled, and that no time should be lost in endeavoring to reach the city by one o'clock. When the signal was given by the teacher the class went to their seats. When James heard of his brother's illness, he went to visit him immediately. When the sun shines, the ice melts. That one should think of living under such a train of circumstances was out of the question. When the war was ended, and peace was proclaimed by the president, the army was disbanded. When the sun set, we were directed to march into the fortification, and await further orders. The pupil who is industrious

is certain to obtain the love and esteem of his teacher. We saw the capitol as it was burning. I stood on the wharf and saw the fleet which was anchored in the bay.

When the boys have finished the lesson, we will divert ourselves in the yard with our tops. I have broken my slate and know not what I shall do, unless you will lend me yours. The fact that he is a hero will avail him nothing in the present emergency. When our work is finished we will study. William knew that the soldier was an officer by his dress. I was not aware until a short time since that he was a candidate for the office of probate judge. Well, I know what I shall do to defeat his purpose. When I saw the poor man's distress, I could scarcely refrain from tears. Henry says he knows where he will go for the carpenter to finish the work. When the sun rose, we made preparations for leaving for home. William knows how he should act to please his friends, as well as any one can tell him. I am sure that it was he. You know that he was a professor.

George was not aware that Thomas was interested for him. I knew that he was a good mechanic. That Robert should defend his claim to the land is proper. That one should steal is base. A man who is prudent will endeavor to avoid danger. James knows what he should read. When the Indians saw the eclipse they were greatly frightened. That he is tutor will give satisfaction to all interested in the prosperity of the school. That William should return to Montgomery is prudent. I was not aware that he was a lawyer. When they reached town they bartered their produce for powder and lead. At the close of the term many will be at a loss what to do. I was not aware that he was dishonest.

ANALYSIS.

§ 306. The Analysis of a sentence consists in resolving it into its elements, and pointing out the offices and relations of each.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

§ 307. The following are the general rules for the analysis of sentences :

1. Determine whether the sentence is *declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory*.
2. If inverted, arrange the sentence in its natural order.
3. Supply ellipses when necessary.
4. State whether the sentence is simple or compound.
5. If simple, name the logical subject and predicate.
6. Name the grammatical subject and predicate.
7. Tell by what modifying words, or adjuncts, they are modified.
8. State by what modifying words, or adjuncts, each modifying word is modified.
9. If the sentence is compound, mention its members and clauses.
10. State whether they are independent or dependent.
11. Show how the members are connected.
12. Analyze each member as a simple sentence by pointing out its subject, predicate, &c., &c.

MODELS FOR ANALYSIS.

1. "Henry reads."

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition; it is declarative, because it expresses a declaration.

"*Henry*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks.

"*Reads*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*Henry*."

In this sentence the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by any other words.

2. "Horses are animals."

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition; it is declarative, because it expresses a declaration.

"*Horses*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks.

"*Are animals*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*horses*." "*Is*" is the verb or copula, and "*horses*" the attribute.

In this sentence the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by any other word.

3. "Snow is white."

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition. It is declarative, because it expresses a declaration.

"*Snow*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks.

"*Is white*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*snow*." "*Is*" is the verb or copula, and "*white*" the attribute.

In this sentence the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical, because they are not modified by any other word.

4. "Good boys and girls read attentively."

This is a simple declarative sentence, subject compound.

The logical subject is "*Good boys and girls*."

The logical predicate, "*read attentively.*"

The grammatical subject is "*boys and girls,*" compound, and connected by "*and,*" both modified by the descriptive "*good.*"

The grammatical predicate is "*read,*" modified by the adverb "*attentively,*" expressing the manner.

5. "The religion of the Koran is a system of deception."

This is a simple declarative sentence.

The logical subject is "*The religion of the Koran.*"

The logical predicate is "*is a system of deception.*"

The grammatical subject is "*System.*" It is limited by the definitive "*the,*" and the adjunct "*of the Koran.*"

The grammatical predicate is "*is system;*" "*is*" is the verb or copula, and "*system*" the attribute. It is limited by the definitive "*a,*" and the adjunct "*of deception.*"

6. "The diligent pupil does what is right from principle."

This is a compound sentence, declarative, containing one leading, and one dependent clause connected by *which*.

The independent clause is "*The diligent pupil does (the thing) from principle.*"

The dependent clause is "*what is right.*"

In the first, or leading clause—

The logical subject is "*The diligent pupil.*"

The logical predicate, "*does (the thing) from principle.*"

The grammatical subject is "*pupil.*" It is modified by the definitive "*the,*" and the descriptive "*good.*"

The grammatical predicate is "*does.*" It is modified by its object, *thing*, and the adjunct, "*from principle;*" *thing* is modified by the relative clause.

In the second, or dependent clause—

The logical subject is "*what.*" It also connects the clause with the indefinite antecedent, *thing* understood, and restricts it.

The logical predicate is "*is right;*" "*is*" is the verb or copula, and "*right*" the attribute.

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

7. "There is nothing which boys prize and esteem so much as amusement."

This is a compound sentence, declarative, consisting of one independent clause, and two dependent clauses.

The independent clause is "*There is nothing.*"

The first dependent clause is "*which boys prize and esteem so much,*" connected to the preceding by "*which.*"

The second dependent clause, connected by "*as*" to the preceding, as its leading member, is "*they prize and esteem,*" amusement.

In the first, or independent proposition—

The logical subject is "*nothing.*"

The logical predicate is "*is.*"

The grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical. "*There*" is an introductory expletive, used in such sentences where the subject follows the verb.

In the second proposition, dependent on the first—

The logical subject is "*boys.*"

The logical predicate is "*prize and esteem which so much.*"

The grammatical subject is "*boys.*"

The grammatical predicate is "*prize*" and "*esteem,*" compound, connected by "*and,*" and modified by their object "*which,*" which also connects its clause with its antecedent "*nothing,*" for the purpose of restricting it, by the adverbial phrase "*so much.*"

In the third proposition, connected with the second by "*as,*"—

The logical subject is "*they,*" understood (for *boys.*)

The logical predicate is "*prize and esteem amusement.*"

The grammatical subject is "*they,*" or the same as in the preceding clause.

The grammatical predicate is "*prize*" and "*esteem*" understood, modified by their object "*amusement.*"

8. "Whom seek ye?"

It is a simple sentence, because it contains but one proposition; interrogative, because it asks a question; indirect, because it inquires for only a part of the corresponding declarative sentence; inverted, because the objective element is placed first.

"*Ye*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks.

"*Seek*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*ye*."

The logical subject is "*ye*."

The logical predicate, "*whom seek*."

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is "*seek*" modified by its object "*whom*."

9. "To pilfer is to steal."

It is a simple, declarative sentence.

"*To pilfer*" is the subject, because it is that of which the proposition speaks.

"*Is to steal*" is the predicate, because it expresses what is affirmed of the subject "*to pilfer*."

The logical subject is "*to pilfer*."

The logical predicate is "*is to steal*." "*Is*" is the verb or copula, and "*to steal*" the attribute.

In this sentence the grammatical subject and predicate are the same as the logical.

10. "The minutest plant or animal, if attentively examined, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand by which it was created."

This is a compound sentence, consisting of one independent clause, and two dependent clauses.

The independent clause is, "*The minutest plant, or animal, affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand*."

The first dependent clause is "*(it is) attentively examined*;" it is connected by the subordinate conjunction "*if*" to the leading verbs "*affords*" and "*obliges*."

The second dependent clause is "*by which it was created*;" it is connected by "*which*" to "*hand*," to describe it.

In the independent clause—

The logical subject is "*The minutest plant or animal*."

The logical predicate is "*Affords a thousand wonders, and obliges us to admire and adore the Omnipotent hand*."

The grammatical subject is "*plant*" and "*animal*," compound; its parts are connected by "*or*" as alternates, and modified by "*minutest*" to describe them.

The grammatical predicate is "*affords*" and "*obliges*," compound; its parts are connected by "*and*." "*Affords*" is limited by its object "*wonders*," modified by the adjectives "*a*" and "*thousand*." "*Obliges*" is limited by the infinitive clause "*us to admire and adore*," of which "*us*" is the subject. These infinitives are limited by the noun "*hand*," modified by the adjectives "*the*" and "*Omnipotent*," and the relative clause "*by which it was created*." The verbs "*affords*" and "*obliges*" are modified also by the conditional clause "*if (it is) attentively examined*."

In the first dependent clause—

The logical subject is "*it*," referring to "*plant*" or "*animal*."

The logical predicate is "*is attentively examined*."

The grammatical subject is "*it*."

The grammatical predicate is "*is examined*." It is modified by the adverb "*attentively*."

In the second dependent clause—

The logical subject is *it*, referring to "*plant*" or "*animal*."

The logical predicate is "*was created by which*."

The grammatical subject is the same as the logical.

The grammatical predicate is "*was created*." It is modified by the adjunct *by which*, referring to "*hand*," its antecedent.

EXERCISES.

Analyze and parse the sentences in the following exercises according to the models before given.

John walks. Virtue triumphs. Rain refreshes. Matilda recited. William improves. James has returned. You may go. Thomas has written. Do come. Edward will recover. America was discovered. Papers are printed. Henry will have returned. I am reading. Sin revived. They have walked. John was writing. Is Augusta reading? Horses are animals. Fish swim. Kings are rulers. Dogs will fight.

Lions roar. They had come. Teachers instruct. Rivers flow. Edward will have returned. God exists. Julia might have written. You were writing. Mary must have read. Rain descends. Labor ceases. Rufus may learn. Works decay. Cotton is declining. Pupils parse. Generals command. Sister will study. Prints sell. Flowers bloom. Sarah shall return. Men have offended. Lucy will have been playing. Willis might have gone. Soldiers are camping. Mexico is conquered. Thomas can go.

Man's work decays. Ripe fruit is excellent. The bird sings. The sun shines. Good boys are industrious. Dutiful children are esteemed. Mild weather is pleasant. That man is base. William has ripe apples. No person came. Julia's needle is lost. Some children are interesting. My brother improves rapidly. John's horse is lame. Good pupils study diligently. Henry himself returned. Webster, the statesman, is dead. Silver is white. Brother Thomas has prepared the recitation. Augustus was emperor. Those fish are large. The mechanic labored industriously. The Americans conquered the British. Your father owns a large plantation. Nero, the Roman emperor, was a most cruel man. Your sister Jane studies diligently. Deep rivers float heavy rafts. A disobedient son grieves his parents. Sin deceives its votaries. John's brother is unfortunate. Henry found a dollar. The scholar's duty is plain. Joseph must study arithmetic. An industrious boy will be esteemed. The committee will visit the school. Good children love their parents.

William has promised to write the letter. I am delighted to see you here. I saw James walking in the garden with his mother. To die is the common lot of all mankind. Alfred found his sister's fan on the floor. Every man fills his space in creation. The city of Mexico is situated in the midst of a

delightful valley. To despair in adversity is the indication of a weak mind. Henderson is the name of a small town. James will not return from Marion before morning. A man of integrity is esteemed in every position. The ancestors of the English are generally known by the name of Saxons. The soldiers marched slowly over the plain. My brother's son sends me the Advocate weekly. The principles of Christianity are founded on the Bible. James will assist you most cheerfully. Without the aid of charity, he lived very comfortably by his industry. We may expect a calm after a storm. Notwithstanding his poverty he was the delight of his acquaintances. We study grammar for our improvement in language. According to my impression Jane is in fault. The progress from vice to virtue is gradual.

A compound sentence contains two or more propositions connected together. A conjunction is used to connect words or propositions. William performed his task very readily. Columbus having accomplished the object of his voyage returned to Spain. We saw a man leading his horse slowly over the bridge. The dark host of Rothmar stood on the banks with their glittering spears. Young gentlemen, you have run over the recitation very carelessly. Paradise, the garden of Eden, is supposed to have been situated somewhere about the head waters of the Euphrates, a river in Asia. The pear is on the ground under the tree. The pleasures of the understanding are preferable to those of the imagination. Ungrammatical expressions offend the ear of the true critic. Bonaparte entered Russia with four hundred thousand men. Perhaps I can illustrate their character more clearly. The slumbering seas calmed the hermit's mind. The twinkling stars with their soft lustre adorned night's blue arch. The stranger saw the desert thistle bending there its lonely head.

The purling streams moisten the earth's surface. True politeness has its seat in the heart. We are commonly blind to our own failings. Temper the vivacity of youth with a proper mixture of serious thought. A plain understanding is often joined with great worth.

Piety and virtue are becoming in all stages of life. The brightest talents are sometimes found without virtue or honor. Truth and candor possess a powerful charm: they bespeak universal favor. After the first departure from sincerity it is seldom in our power to stop: one artifice generally leads on to another. In preparing for another world, we must not neglect the duties of this life. A life of pleasure and dissipation is an enemy to health, fortune, and character. We should endeavor to please, rather than to shine and dazzle. Brutus loved Cæsar much, but he loved Rome more. William's father died before he arrived. John and James are happy, because they are good. Mary speaks so low, that she cannot be heard. My lips shall not speak wickedness, nor my tongue utter deceit. If greatness flatters our vanity, it multiplies our dangers. Though bad men attempt to turn virtue into ridicule, they honor it at the bottom of their hearts. Happiness does not grow up of its own accord, but it is the fruit of long cultivation, and the acquisition of great labor and care.

Show mankind that truth has yet a friend. All this passed much quicker than I can write it. We obey the laws of society, because they are the laws of virtue. The boy who studies will improve. Your uncle was the man whom we saw. The annals of our race have been filled up with incidents which convey no instruction. Columbus supposed Hispaniola to be the ancient Ophir, which had been visited by the ships of Solomon. The man who instructs you, labors faithfully. Pride goeth before destruction, and a haughty spirit before a

downfall. He was a professed Catholic, yet he imprisoned the Pope. The book is well written, still it may not please. No fascinating throng weep, and melt, and tremble at his eloquence. The evil bow before the good; and the wicked, at the gates of the righteous. The sun having set, all nature was silent. The spirit, indeed, is willing, but the flesh is weak. Had you led the way, he would have followed. I gave more than he, and yet I fear I have not given enough. Go not away, for it is wrong; but return to your brother; because he desires you to do so.

The man who is faithfully attached to religion may be relied on with confidence. The vices which we should especially avoid are those that most easily beset us. Even in these times there are many persons who, from disinterested motives, are solicitous to promote the happiness of others. The young and the prosperous should not presume on their advantages. When a person has nothing to do, he is often tempted to do wrong. The business is completed at last, but I intended to do it long ago. Knowing him to be my superior, I cheerfully submitted. If Charles acquire knowledge, good manners, and virtue, he will secure esteem. If we possess not the power of self-government, we shall be the prey of every loose inclination that chances to arise. We spend our time in contending absurdly about the trifles of the day, while we ought to be preparing for a higher existence. The patient and the wise, by a proper improvement of the disappointments of life, frequently make them contribute to their advantage.

How little do they know of the true happiness of life, who are strangers to that intercourse of good offices and kind affections, which, by a pleasing charm, attaches men to one another, and circulates rational enjoyment from heart to heart. If we view ourselves, with all our imperfections and failings in

a just light, we shall rather be surprised at our enjoying so many good things, than discontented, because there are any which we want. Mary is more talkative and lively than her mother, but not so well informed, nor so uniformly cheerful. True cheerfulness makes a man happy in himself, and promotes the happiness of all around him. Look around you with attentive eyes, and weigh characters well, before you connect yourself too closely with any who may court your society. The beauty of form, a flower easily blasted, often betrays its possessor; for it is short-lived at the best, and trifling at any rate in comparison with the higher and more lasting beauties of the mind. The true honor of man consists not in the multitude of riches, or the elevation of rank; for experience shows that any of these may be possessed by the worthless as well as by the deserving.

Thousands whom indolence has sunk into contemptible obscurity, might have filled positions of usefulness and honor, if idleness had not blighted the effects of their natural powers. Sloth is like the slow flowing putrid stream, which stagnates in the marsh, breeds venomous animals and poisonous plants, and infects with pestilential vapor the whole country round it. Whatever fortune may rob us of, it cannot take away what is most valuable, the peace of a good conscience, and the cheering prospect of a happy conclusion to all the trials of life in a better world. How many pass away the most valuable season of their lives, tossed in the whirlpool of what cannot be called pleasure so much as mere giddiness and folly. Be not overcome by the injuries you meet with, so as to pursue revenge; by the disasters of life, so as to sink into despair; by the evil examples of the world, so as to follow them into sin; but overcome injuries, by forgiveness; disasters, by fortitude; evil examples, by firmness of principle.

As far as happiness is to be found on earth, we must look for it, not in the world or things of the world; but within ourselves, in our temper, and in our heart. The smooth stream, the serene atmosphere, and the mild zephyr, are the proper emblems of a gentle temper, and a peaceful life; but among the sons of strife, all is loud and tempestuous.

If we knew how much the pleasures of this life deceive and betray their unhappy votaries; and reflect on the disappointments in pursuit, the dissatisfaction in enjoyment, or the uncertainty of possession, which everywhere attend them; we should cease to be enamored of these brittle and transient joys; and should wisely fix our hearts on those attainments which the world can neither give nor take away.

“In faith and hope the world will disagree;
But all mankind’s concern is charity.”

“Some in the fields of purest ether play,
And bask and whiten in the blaze of day.”

“In dread, in danger and alone,
Famished and chilled, through ways unknown,
Tangled and steep, he journeyed on,
Till, at a rock’s huge point he turned,
A watch-fire close before him burned.”

“To be resigned where ills betide,
Patient when favors are denied,
And pleased with favors given;
Most surely this is wisdom’s part,
This that incense of the heart,
Whose fragrance smells to heaven.”

“Order is heaven’s first law; and this confest,
Some are, and must be, greater than the rest;

More rich, more wise, who infers from hence,
That such are happier, shocks all common sense."

"Needful austerities our wills restrain ;
As thorns fence in the tender plant from harm."

"Reason's whole pleasure, all the joys of sense,
Lie in three words, health, peace and competence ;
But health consists with temperance alone ;
And peace, O virtue ! is all thy own."

"On earth nought precious is obtained,
But what is painful too ;
By travail and to travail born,
Our Sabbaths are but few."

"Who noble ends, by noble means obtains,
Or failing, smiles in exile or in chains,
Like good Aurelius let him reign, or bleed
Like Socrates, that man is great indeed."

"Our hearts are fasten'd to this world
By strong and endless ties ;
But every sorrow cuts a string,
And urges us to rise."

"All fame is foreign, but of true desert ;
Plays round the head, but comes not to the heart ;
One self-approving hour whole years outweighs
Of stupid starers, and of loud huzzas ;
And more true joy Marcellus, exiled, feels,
Than Cæsar with a senate at his heels."

"Oft pining cares in rich brocades are drest,
And diamonds glitter on an anxious breast."

“Teach me to feel another’s woe,
To hide the fault I see ;
The mercy I to others show,
That mercy show to me.”

“Far from the madd’ning crowd’s ignoble strife,
Their sober wishes never learn to stray ;
Along the cool, sequestered vale of life,
They kept the noiseless tenor of their way.”

“If nothing more than purpose in thy power,
Thy purpose, firm, is equal to the deed ;
Who does the best his circumstance allows,
Does well, acts nobly ; angels could no more.”

“Vice is a monster of so frightful mien,
As, to be hated, needs but to be seen ;
Yet seen too oft, familiar with her face,
We first endure, then pity, then embrace.”

“What nothing earthly gives, or can destroy,
The soul’s calm sunshine, and the heartfelt joy,
Is virtue’s prize.”

“When young, life’s journey I began,
The glitt’ring prospect charm’d my eyes,
I saw, along the extended plain,
Joy after joy successive rise.”

“The first sure symptom of a mind in health,
Is rest of heart, and pleasures felt at home.”

“If I am right thy grace impart,
Still in the right to stay ;
If I am wrong, O teach my heart
To find that better way.”

“True happiness resides in things unseen ;
No smiles of fortune ever blest the bad,
Nor can her frowns rob innocence of joy.”

“But soon I found ’twas all a dream ;
And learn’d the fond pursuit to shun,
Where few can reach the purpos’d aim,
And thousands daily are undone.”

“’Tis greatly wise to talk with our past hours,
And ask them what report they bore to heav’n.”

“All nature is but art unknown to thee ;
All chance, direction which thou canst not see ;
All discord, harmony not understood ;
All partial evil, universal good.”

“Heaven’s choice is safer than our own ;
Of ages past inquire,
What the most formidable fate ;
‘To have our own desire.’ ”

“If ceaseless, thus, the fowls of heav’n he feeds,
If o’er the fields such lucid robes he spreads ;
Will he not care for you, ye faithless, say ?
Is he unwise ? or, are ye less than they ?”

“The spacious firmament on high,
With all the blue ethereal sky,
And spangled heav’ns, a shining frame,
Their great original proclaim :
Th’ unwearied sun, from day to day,
Does his Creator’s power display
And publishes to every land,
The work of an Almighty hand.

“Soon as the ev’ning shades prevail,
 The moon takes up the wond’rous tale,
 And, nightly, to the list’ning earth,
 Repeats the story of her birth :
 Whilst all the stars that round her burn,
 And all the planets in their turn,
 Confirm the tidings as they roll,
 And spread the truth from pole to pole.

“What though, in solemn silence, all
 Move round the dark terrestrial ball !
 What, though no real voice nor sound
 Amid their radiant orbs be found !
 In reason’s ear they all rejoice,
 And utter forth a glorious voice,
 For ever singing as they shine,
 ‘The hand that made us is Divine.’”

QUESTIONS.

- What does Syntax treat of ?
- Of what does a Proposition consist ?
- What is the Subject ? Predicate ?
- What is remarked respecting the word *affirm* ?
- What is said of the name of the object addressed ?
- What is the position of the subject in interrogative sentences ?
- What is said of the Subject ?
- What is the Grammatical Subject ?
- the Logical ?
- What is said of the Grammatical Subject when it is not modified ?
- What further is remarked of the Subject ?

What is the Simple Subject?

What is the Modified Simple Subject sometimes called?

What is the Compound Subject?

When are words said to modify or limit others?

How may the Grammatical Subject be modified?

What is the first method?

Exemplify it.

What is the second? Third? Fourth? Fifth? Sixth?
Seventh?

What is said of Modifying or Limiting Words?

How may a Modifying Noun be modified?

—— an Adjective?

—— an Adverb?

What is said of the modification of a Modified Grammatical Subject?

What is said of the Predicate?

Of what does the Grammatical Predicate consist?

What are they called?

What is the Copula?

What is its office?

What is the Attribute?

How are the Copula and Attribute often found?

What is said of words containing the Copula and Attribute united?

What are such words frequently called?

When the verb *to be* is an attributive verb, what does it denote?

What is a Copulative Verb?

What further is said of the Predicate?

What is the Simple Predicate?

Of what does the Compound consist?

How may the Grammatical Predicate be modified?

What is the first named ?

Exemplify it.

What is the second ? &c., &c.

What is said of an Infinitive, or Participle ?

—— of all other words modifying the Predicate ?

What is a Sentence ?

How are they divided ?

What is a Declarative Sentence ?

Interrogative ? Exclamatory ? Imperative ?

Of what may a Sentence consist ?

What is a Simple Sentence ?

What is a Compound Sentence ?

What are the Propositions of which it is composed called ?

What is said of the members of a Compound Sentence ?

What is an Independent Clause ?

What is a Dependent Clause ?

What do you understand by the Leading Clause ?

—— the Leading Subject ?

What is remarked of the Subordinate Clause ?

How may the members of a Compound Sentence be connected ?

What is said of the Connecting Word ?

What is said of the Infinitive with its Subject ?

What is an Abridged Proposition ?

What is said of the connecting word in Abridged Propositions ?

When the subjects denote different objects, how may the Subordinate Clause be used ?

What is remarked of the subordinate clause, when the subjects denote the same object ?

When the attribute in the dependent clause consists of a noun or pronoun in the nominative case after the verb or copula, what case does it take in its abridged form ?

What is the difference between the abridged, and the unabridged expression ?

When the dependent clause is the object of the verb in the leading clause, how may it be changed ?

When both subjects are the same, what is said of that of the subordinate clause before an infinitive ?

When the subject of the dependent clause is connected by *what*, *whom*, *which*, and the like, relating to something yet future, how is it abridged ?

How may such expressions and phrases as "how to sing," &c., &c., be explained ?

How may a dependent clause often be abridged ?

CONSTRUCTION.

§ 308. Words are arranged in sentences according to certain rules, termed the *Rules of Syntax*.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

1. Every sentence, however simple, must consist of a subject and predicate.

2. Every subject must have a verb, expressed or understood.

3. Every finite verb must have a subject, expressed or understood.

4. A noun or pronoun in the objective case is used to limit the action of a transitive verb, or complete the relation of a proposition.

5. A noun or pronoun denoting the relation of ownership, source, or kind, takes the form of the possessive.

6. Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in gender, number, and person.

7. Adjectives relate to nouns which they describe or limit.

PARTS OF SYNTAX.

§ 309. Syntax is commonly divided into two parts : *Concord*, and *Government*.

§ 310. Concord is the agreement of one word with another in gender, number and person.

§ 311. Government is the power of one word in determining the mood, tense or case of another.

REMARK.—Formerly the Rules of Syntax were arranged according to this division. By this arrangement rules of essential importance to the beginner are scattered too much. The best arrangement is as they naturally arise from the analysis of a simple sentence. Strictly, this may not be as logical as the former method, but its practical advantages counterbalance every other consideration.

§ 312. Words used to explain or modify other words are called Adjuncts. This term embraces all the words of a simple sentence, except the subject and predicate. Adjuncts are often composed of two or more words ; e. g., “ Printing was invented in the fifteenth century.”

§ 313. An Idiom is a form of expression peculiar to a language ; e. g., “ *Bear with me ;*” “ *Let me do it,* as it is my wish.”

REMARK.—The idioms of a language are not governed according to the ordinary rules of syntax. A knowledge of them is best acquired by carefully observing the phraseology of the best writers and speakers.

§ 314. An Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words in a sentence. Such words are said to be understood. Indeed, they are as much a part of the sentence as if they were expressed. A full construction requires them; the meaning should be evident without them; e. g., “That is William’s grammar, but this is *Robert’s*.”

REMARK.—“That is William’s grammar, but this is Robert’s.” In this sentence there is an ellipsis of the word *grammar*. Caution must be observed not to omit a word that would obscure the sense, or weaken the force of expression.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

RULE I.

The subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case; e. g., “*William* writes.”

RULE II.

A verb must agree with its subject in number and person; e. g., “*William writes*.”

RULE III.

A noun or pronoun used to limit the action of a transitive verb, must be in the objective case; e. g., “*William writes letters*.”

RULE IV.

A noun or pronoun used to identify another

noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; e. g., “Brother *William* writes letters.”

RULE V.

A noun or pronoun used to limit the relation of ownership, source or kind, is put in the possessive; e. g., “*Sun’s* rays;” “*Alfred’s* knife;” “*Webster’s* Dictionary.”

RULE VI.

Adjectives relate to nouns which they describe or limit; e. g., “*Good* boys;” “*A* book;” “*The* man;” “*Either* hat;” “*Five* cents.”

RULE VII.

Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in gender, number and person; e. g., “William went to *his* play;” “The man is happy *who* lives virtuously;” “*Whoever* studies will become learned;” “*What* did you do?”

RULE VIII.

Intransitive and passive verbs take the same case after them, as before them, when both words refer to the same person or thing; e. g., “Honesty is the best *policy*;” “I took it to be *him*;” “Father was chosen *librarian*.”

RULE IX.

A preposition is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; e. g., “Washington was the father *of* his country;” “Uncle went *from* Columbus *to* Charleston.”

RULE X.

A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition must be in the objective case; e. g., “Washington was the father of his *country*;” “Uncle went from *Columbus* to *Charleston*.”

RULE XI.

A noun or pronoun having no grammatical relation to the sentence in which it stands, is put in the nominative independent; e. g., “*Father*, William has come;” “*James having returned*, we finished the lesson.”

RULE XII.

The infinitive mood is used to limit a verb, noun or adjective; e. g., “*Strive to improve*;” “He was in *haste to retire*;” “The boat is *ready to leave*.”

RULE XIII.

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and some-

times other adverbs; e. g., “James studies *diligently*, and is a *very* attentive pupil.”

RULE XIV.

Conjunctions connect words and propositions; e. g., “Susan *and* Mary know *that* they have disobeyed.”

RULE XV.

Exclamations have no grammatical relation to other words; e. g., “*O*, haste my father’s heart to cheer!”

QUESTIONS.

What is Construction?

Name the General Principles.

How is Syntax divided?

What is Concord?

What is Government?

What is an Adjunct?

What does this term embrace?

Of what are Adjuncts often composed?

What is an Idiom?

What is said of the government of Idioms?

How is a knowledge of them best acquired?

What is an Ellipsis?

What caution is given in the note?

RULE I.

§ 315. The subject of a proposition must be in the nominative case; e. g., “*William writes.*”

EXPLANATION.—The subject of a proposition is that of which something is affirmed; e. g., “*William writes.*” Here “*William*” is the subject, because it is that of which the action “*writes*” is affirmed.

CAUTION.—This rule is violated by putting the subject of the verb in any other case than the nominative.

NOTE.—Although every subject of a finite verb must be in the nominative case, every nominative case is not the subject of a verb. The predicate nominative after a finite verb is put in the nominative; a noun or pronoun in apposition with the subject or predicate nominative, is put in the nominative; a noun denoting the person addressed, is put in the nominative; a noun with a participle or infinitive in an abridged proposition is put in the nominative; and also a noun used in a mere exclamation.

REMARK 1.—The subject of a verb is generally a noun or pronoun; e. g., “*William writes;*” “*I love.*”

REMARK 2.—Sometimes an infinitive, or part of a sentence, is taken as its subject; e. g., “*To err is human;*” “*That one should steal is base.*”

REMARK 3.—The subject, in general, precedes the verb; e. g., “*James walked into the garden.*” In the following cases, the subject of the verb is usually placed after it, or the first auxiliary:

(1.) When a question is asked without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case; e. g., “*Shall mortals be implacable?*” “*Will you go with us?*”

(2.) When the verb is in the imperative mood; e. g., “*Bring your book;*” “*Be not frightened.*”

(3.) When an earnest wish or strong desire is expressed; e. g., “*May she be happy!*” “*How were we struck* with the beauty of the scenery!”

(4.) When a supposition is made without the conjunction *if*; e. g., “*Had we known it*, we might have assisted them.” “*Was it true* that James did it?”

(5.) When *neither* or *nor*, signifying *and not*, precedes the verb; e. g., “This was his fear, *nor was his apprehension* groundless.”

(6.) When, for the sake of emphasis, some word or words are placed before the verb, which more naturally come after it; e. g., “Silver and gold *have I* none, but such as I have, *give I* thee.”

(7.) When the verb has no regimen, and is itself emphatical; e. g., “After the light infantry *marched* the *grenadiers*, then *followed* the horse.”

(8.) When the verbs *say*, *answer*, *reply*, and the like, introduce the parts of a dialogue; e. g., “Son of affliction, *said Omar*, who art thou?”

(9.) When the adverb *there* precedes the verb; e. g., “In all worldly joys, *there is* a secret wound.”

REMARK 4.—A noun and its pronoun cannot be the subject of the same verb; e. g., “The merchant *he* is honest;” “The merchant is honest.”

REMARK 5.—In an abridged proposition, the subject may remain unchanged, may be changed, or may be wholly dropped.

(1.) It remains unchanged, when it denotes a different person or thing from that of the principal clause, and (though logically it is still the subject) it is said to be in the *nominative independent*, with the participle of the predicate; e. g., “*When shame is lost*, all virtue is lost;” “*Shame being lost*, all virtue is lost.”

(2.) It is changed in the possessive case, when the abridged predicate as a noun becomes the object of its possession; e. g., “I was not aware *that he was going*;” “I was not aware *of his going*.”

(3.) It is changed to the objective case when it follows a transitive verb, and is followed by the infinitive of the predicate, or (when the infinitive is omitted) by the attribute of the predicate; e. g., “We supposed that he was writing;” “We supposed *him* to be writing;” or (omitting the infinitive) “We supposed *him writing*.”

(4.) It is dropped when it represents the subject or object of the principal clause, or, in general, when it represents the noun which the sub-

ordinate clause limits; e. g., "I wish *that I might go*;" "I wish *to go*."
 "Reproof *which is given in public* hardens the heart;" "Reproof *given in public* hardens the heart." See "Abridged Propositions," Page 203.

REMARK 6.—The object of the verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive; e. g., "Columbus discovered *America*;" "*America* was discovered by Columbus."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Thomas and me learned the lesson and recited it together. Are not him and her cousins? Them that seek wisdom shall be wise. Him and me are of the same age. Him I accuse has just entered. The Saviour will in no wise cast out whomsoever cometh unto him. Her that studies will improve. Whom do you think called to see Jane? The commander feared the enemy might fall on his men, whom he saw were off their guard. He is great, but truth is greater than us. The mechanic we met yesterday by the church, he is an industrious citizen. Matilda has more experience than her. Him that is industrious will accumulate property and become rich. I should like to know whom found my knife. Stimulated in turn by their approbation, and that of better judges than them, she turned to their literature with redoubled energy. We had drawn up against peaceable travelers, who must have been as glad to escape as us. Them that seek me early shall find me. You and them, I am told, had a long dispute about nothing.

Whomsoever shall compel thee to go a mile, go with him twain. Unless as I said, Sirs, you are masters, and not me. Are you as old as him? Mary can write nearly as well as me. Such notions should be avowed at this time by none but fanat-

ties as mad as me. A man of business in good company, is hardly more insupportable than her they called a notable woman. A stone is heavy, and the sand weighty, but a fool's wrath is heavier than them both. Solomon who was wiser than them all. Those whom the Jews thought were the last to be saved, were the first to enter the kingdom of God. This is the young lady whom obtained the prize for the best essay on "Propriety of Conduct." You are a much greater loser than me by his death. In whom I am nearly concerned, and whom I knew would be very apt to justify my whole procedure. They and us took a long walk towards the lake, and visited she on our return. Them are the finest peaches I ever saw. Whom was elected speaker after the death of the vice-president? Tell Robert that I know more about it than him. So that "He is greater than me," will be more grammatical than, "He is greater than I." We sorrow not as them that have no hope. They would be under the dominion, absolute and unlimited, of whomsoever might exercise the right of judgment. None of his school-fellows is more wiser than him. If he suffers, he suffers as them that have no hope.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences in which the subject shall be a noun or pronoun of the singular number. Five in which it shall be of the plural number. Five in which the subject shall be an infinitive or part of sentence. Five having the subject placed after the predicate.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule First?

Repeat the caution.

- What is said of every nominative case?
- What is generally the subject of a verb?
- What is sometimes used in place of a noun?
- Where is the subject usually written?
- When a question is asked without an interrogative?
- When the verb is in the imperative mood?
- What is said of a noun and its pronoun?
- What is said of the subject in abridged propositions?
- What is the subject of the verb in the passive voice?

RULE II.

§ 316. A verb must agree with its subject in number and person; e. g., “*William* writes.”

EXPLANATION.—This rule means that the verb must always be of the same person and number as its subject. In the proposition “*William* writes,” the subject “*William*” is of the third person singular; the verb is put in the same person and number to agree with it.

CAUTION.—This rule is violated by putting the verb in any other number and person than the subject; e. g., “*A life of prayer am* the life of heaven.” Corrected, “*A life of prayer is* the life of heaven.”

REMARK 1.—Every finite verb must have a subject expressed or understood; e. g., “*Mary improves* quite rapidly;” “*William wrote* to his mother.”

REMARK 2.—When an infinitive, or clause of a sentence is the subject, the verb must be of the third person singular; e. g., “*To do good is* the duty of all men;” “*That we differ in opinion is* not strange.”

REMARK 3.—When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by

and, it agrees with them in the plural number; e. g., "John and Thomas *are* good boys."

NOTE.—This remark applies to infinitives and clauses used as subjects; e. g., "To be rich, and to be happy, *are* different things."

EXCEPTION 1.—When the nominatives relate to one person or thing, the verb must be in the singular; e. g., "That good man, and exemplary Christian *is* no more."

EXCEPTION 2.—When two or more nominatives, connected by *and*, are preceded by *each*, *every*, *no*, *not*, or some disuniting word, they must be taken separately; e. g., "Every man, every woman, and every child *was* killed." "John, and not Henry, *attends*." "Each book and paper *was* kept by itself."

REMARK 4.—Two or more nominatives in the singular number connected by *or* or *nor*, require a singular verb; e. g., "Either John or his brother *will leave* for the city in the morning." "Nor eye, nor listening ear, an object *finds*; creation *sleeps*."

REMARK 5.—When nominatives of different numbers are separated by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees with them in the plural; e. g., "Neither Matilda nor her sisters *have arrived*."

REMARK 6.—When collective nouns imply unity, the verb agrees with them in the singular; e. g., "The mob *was dispersed*."

NOTE.—It is sometimes difficult to determine whether a collective noun expresses unity or plurality. It is the custom of our best writers and speakers to use the plural where the singular is not obviously required.

REMARK 7.—A nominative after *many a* has a verb in the singular; e. g., "Many a *man* has tried to be rich, but in vain."

REMARK 8.—Nouns used figuratively in the singular of a plural signification require a plural verb; e. g., "There *are* seventy head in the flock."

REMARK 9.—When a verb has several persons connected by *and*, it agrees with the first rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; e. g., "He and I *shared* it between us"

REMARK 10.—When a verb has several persons connected by *or* or *nor*, it agrees in person with the one next to it; e. g., "Either you or I *am* mistaken."

REMARK 11.—When a verb is placed between two nominatives of a different number, it may agree with either. In general it agrees with the first; e. g., “Words *are* wind.”

REMARK 12.—The verb *do* should never be substituted for any term to which its own meaning is not adapted; e. g., “When we see how confidently men rest on groundless surmises in one thing, we cannot wonder that they *do it* in reference to others.” It would be better to say—“that they *so rest*,” &c.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

The scales am turned. The clouds has dispersed. Am she expected? Is you here? Circumstances alters cases. Idlers hates study. Some people is busy, yet do very little. The time and place was agreed upon. Temperance and exercise preserves the body. The number of our days am with thee. How does your plans succeed? Twenty head of cattle was grazing in the field. To utter such words are wrong. A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye. To labor night and day fatigue the mind. Not her beauty, but her talents, attracts attention. Wisdom, not wealth, procure esteem. Either the boy or the girl were present. That distinguished poet and scholar are dead. Neither he nor I intends to be there. Politics does not always improve a man's fortune. To live soberly, righteously and godly, are required of all. We need not argue any longer, for them's my sentiments. We was delighted with the 'excursion. Your father's energy and industry was remarkable. Every leaf, every twig, every drop of water, teem with life.

In France the peasantry goes barefoot, while the middle class makes use of wooden shoes. A tart reply, a proneness

to rebuke, or a captious spirit, are capable of embittering domestic life. The Congress of the United States are composed of a senate, and house of representatives. Generation after generation pass away. The author or his works is in fault. The general, with some of the soldiers, were taken. So much of ability and merit are seldom found. To be ignorant of such things are now inexcusable. Many a broken ship have come to land. The public is respectfully invited to attend the lecture. Patience and diligence, like faith, removes mountains. A man's being rich, or his being poor, do not affect his character for integrity. Two dozen is as many as you can take. When sickness, infirmity, or misfortune affect us, the sincerity of friendship is tried. Everybody are kind to her, and not discourteous to me. So all are indebted to each, and each are dependent on all. Technical terms injudiciously introduced, is another source of darkness. The origin of the Grecian and Roman republics, though equally involved in the obscurities and uncertainties of fabulous events, present one remarkable distinction.

A multitude of words in their dialect approaches to the Teutonic form, and therefore affords excellent assistance. Small as the number of inhabitants are, yet their poverty is extreme. The greatest part of human gratifications approaches nearly to vice. Humility and knowledge with poor apparel, excels pride and ignorance under costly array. The tone and style of each of them, particularly the first and the last, is different. In all writing and discourse, the proper composition and structure of sentences is of the highest importance. Common sense as well as piety tell us these are proper. At every urn the richest melody as well as the sublimest sentiments are conspicuous. Every private Christian and member of the church ought to read and peruse the Scriptures, that they may

know their faith and belief are founded on them. A noun or pronoun joined with a participle constitute the nominative independent. A rusty nail or crooked pin, shoot up into prodigies. Neither the general situation of our colonies, nor that particular distress which forced the inhabitants of Boston to take up arms, have been thought worthy of a moment's consideration. It ought to be avoided even on this ground, which may easily be done by using a different construction. To speak or to write perspicuously is attainments of the greatest importance. The pleasure or pain resulting from a train of perceptions in different circumstances, are a beautiful contrivance of nature for valuable purposes.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences having a verb of the first, or second person of the indicative present. Five, in which the verb shall be of the third person. Five, in which it shall be the present, past, or future of the progressive form. Five, in which it shall be used interrogatively. Five, in which it shall be second present, second past, or second future.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Second?

Explain it.

How is the rule violated?

What must every finite verb have, expressed or understood?

When the subject of the verb is an infinitive or clause, of what person must it be?

When a verb has two or more nominatives connected by *and*, how does it agree with them?

What is said of the use of this rule?

What is the first exception?

Mention the second.

When two or more nominatives in the singular number are connected by *or* or *nor*, how must the verb agree with them?

When the nominatives separated by *or* or *nor* are of different numbers, of what number must the verb be?

When collective nouns imply unity, how must the verb agree with them?

What direction is given for difficult cases in the note?

What is said of nominatives after *many a*?

When a noun is used figuratively in the singular, having a plural signification, of what number is the verb?

When a verb has several persons connected by *and*, with which does it agree?

When the verb has several persons connected by *or* or *nor*, with which does it agree?

When a verb is placed between two nominatives of a different number, with which does it agree?

What is remarked of the verb *do*?

RULE III.

§ 317. A noun or pronoun used to limit the action of a transitive verb, must be in the objective; e. g., “William writes *letters*.”

EXPLANATION.—In the sentence “William writes letters” the noun *letters* is used to limit the action of the transitive verb *writes* to a particular object.

CAUTION.—This rule is violated by putting the noun or pro-

noun limiting the action expressed by the verb, in any other case than the objective.

NOTE.—Participles are modified in the same way as their verbs.

REMARK 1.—An infinitive, a participial noun, or a clause, may be used to limit the action of a transitive verb; e. g., “Boys love *to play* ;” “Children love *playing* ;” “I know *that you will be an attentive pupil* .”

REMARK 2.—When the subject and object are nouns, the object is usually placed after the verb; e. g., “Robert called *Henry* .” When the subject or object is a pronoun, the order may be varied without obscuring the sense. Sometimes the objective is rendered more emphatic by being placed first; e. g., “*Him* he slew.”

When the objective is a relative or interrogative, it precedes both the verb and its nominative; e. g., “The man *whom* we saw is dead.” “*Whom* did you see?”

REMARK 3.—The object of the verb, if possible, should not be separated from it by an intervening clause; e. g., “We could not *discover*, for the want of proper tests, the *quality* of the metal.” Better, “We could not, for want of proper tests, *discover the quality* of the metal.”

REMARK 4.—The object of the verb is omitted, when it is something indefinite or easily supplied; e. g., “William reads.”

REMARK 5.—Transitive verbs are sometimes improperly used as intransitive; e. g., “We promise *with* three circumstances ;” “I cannot allow *of* that.” The preposition should be expunged in each of these sentences.

REMARK 6.—Intransitive verbs are sometimes improperly used as transitive; e. g., “He repented *him* of the design.” *Him* should be expunged; “He repented of the design.”

REMARK 7.—A few intransitive verbs are followed by an object of kindred signification: e. g., “In consequence of her disposition, Jane lives an unhappy *life* .”

(1.) To this usage may be referred such expressions as the following :—
“The brooks ran *nectar* ;” “The trees wept *gums* and *balms* ;” “Her lips blushed deeper *sweets* .”

(2.) To this rule also belongs the objective after causatives; as, "He runs a stage;" "Thomas walked the horse."

REMARK 8.—Verbs signifying to ask, to teach, to call, to allow, to make, to constitute, and some others, are followed by *two objectives*; e. g., "He asked *me* a *question*;" "Henry gave *Robert* his *book*;" "The people elected *him* *president*."

(1.) In such sentences, in the passive voice, the direct object is made the subject of the verb, and the indirect follows it; e. g., "They named *him* *John*;" Passive, "*He* was named *John*." In loose composition the remote object is sometimes made the subject, and the immediate remains in the objective after the verb; e. g., "A *book* was promised *me*."

(2.) When the remote object comes between the verb and the immediate object, the immediate object should be made the object of relation; e. g., "Henry gave his book *to Robert*."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

He that is idle and mischievous, reprove. Who do you think I saw? I cannot allow of that. He invited my brother and I to dine with him. Fear he who can reward and punish. He repented him of the design. His servants ye are to whom ye obey. He was afforded an opportunity to repent. Your teacher does not allow of quarreling. Rufus was furnished a seat. Your friend was told of the fact some days since. We were shown several fine pictures. Robert Norris was taught grammar. The boys do not want for encouragement. I have been asked the question, and should like to know the truth about it. Believers are not promised temporal riches. These are the persons who you should esteem. He and they we know, but who are you? The man who he raised from obscurity, is dead. I was offered employment in the city, but did not like the terms.

This is a friend who you must cordially receive. We were show several beautiful pictures when we visited the rooms of the artist. No teacher should allow of such a practice, for it will injure his reputation. The troops pursued, without waiting to rest, the enemies to their gates. I was paid a dollar for my services. Who should I meet the other day but my old friend? Bicket could not better discover than by attacking so powerful an interest, his resolution to maintain his right. Henry did not want for encouragement. Though he now takes pleasure in them, he will one day repent him of indulgences so unwarrantable. To ingratiate with some by traducing others marks a little mind. How shall the people know who to entrust with their property and their liberties. Covet earnestly for the best gifts. False accusations cannot diminish from his real merit. He invited my brother and I to call and examine his library. Who did they send on so important an errand?—

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences illustrating the rule. Write five sentences containing an example of a transitive verb limited by an infinitive. Five, by a participial noun. Five, by a clause. Write five sentences having a relative or interrogative before the verb. Five, changing an intransitive into a transitive verb. Five, having a direct and indirect object. Five, having the direct object as the subject of a verb in the passive voice.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Third?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What is observed in remark first?

When the subject and object are nouns, where is the object usually placed?

When the object is a relative or interrogative?

What is remarked of the position of the object in general?

When may the object be omitted?

What is said of transitive verbs?

What is remarked of intransitive verbs?

When do they admit of an object?

What is said of verbs of *asking*, *teaching*, &c.?

What is said of such sentences in the passive voice?

When the remote object comes between the verb and its immediate object, how is the immediate object disposed of?

RULE IV.

§ 318. A noun or pronoun used to identify another noun or pronoun, is put by apposition in the same case; e. g., “Brother *William* writes letters.”

EXPLANATION.—A noun or pronoun is said to be in apposition, when it is added to another noun or pronoun by way of explanation or description. In the sentence, “Brother William writes letters,” the noun “*William*” is added to distinguish what brother is meant.

REMARK 1.—This rule supposes the first word to be the principal term. In prose it is almost invariably the case, but in poetry the explanatory word is often placed first; e. g.,

“Poor *wanderers* of a stormy day,
From wave to wave we’re driven.”

REMARK 2.—When, for the sake of emphasis, the same name is repeated, it is in apposition with the former; e. g., “*Company*, villainous *company*, hath been the spoil of me.”

REMARK 3.—A noun is sometimes put in apposition with a sentence; e. g., “The *maxim*, ‘*Enough is as good as a feast*,’ has silenced many a vain wish.”

REMARK 4.—A plural term is sometimes put in apposition with two or more nouns, to combine and give them emphasis; e. g., “Time, labor, money, *all* were lost.”

REMARK 5.—When possessives are put in apposition, the form is used only with one of them; e. g., “*John* the *Baptist’s* head.”

REMARK 6.—Names or titles employed to distinguish individuals of a family or class; e. g., “F. M. Peterson, M. D., L. C. Garland, LL. D., H. Talbird, D. D.,” &c., &c., are parsed by some as in apposition. It is better to regard them as complex nouns, and parse them as such.

REMARK 7.—Some teach, “that the words in the cases preceding and following *to be* are in *apposition* with each other.” This is not consistent with the proper meaning of the term, for it assumes that the literal reading, when the supposed ellipsis is supplied, is in apposition still. In the exercise of parsing, the rule for apposition should be applied only to the explanatory term.

REMARK 8.—Sometimes *as*, denoting *capacity*, *rank* or *office*, intervenes between two nouns, one of which is in apposition with the other; e. g., “The moon *as satellite* attends.”

REMARK 9.—The proper name of a place, instead of being put in apposition with the common name, usually follows the preposition *of*; e. g., “The city *of Charleston*.”

REMARK 10.—Distributives are sometimes in apposition with a plural substantive; e. g., “*They* fled, *some* one way, and *some* another;” “*Go ye*, *every man* to his city.” Also the first of words denoting reciprocity; e. g., “*They* love *one* another;” that is, *one* loves *another*. “*They* confide in *each other*.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Have you heard from your cousin, she that I saw with you in Marion at the last concert? Alfred returned, him who went to the office with Willis for Parson Henderson. Has your sister recovered, her that was lately sick? Give it to James, he who stands at the door. The grammar was bought of Mr. Peas, he that keeps the book-store in Columbus. I spoke of Milton, he who wrote *Paradise Lost*. Mary, her who you sent to me, came late in the evening. We were talking of Cromwell, he who beheaded Charles. We have just visited our friends, they that live in town. Mary, Queen of Scots, her that was beheaded, was a lady of rare endowments. It was Virgil, him who wrote the *Æneid*. The servant has arrived, him whom you saw. Do you speak so to me, I who have raised you? Patrick Henry, him who made the parsons tremble, was their only advocate. Let us worship the Lord, he who is from everlasting to everlasting. Blame me not, I who have labored so much for you.

Christ and him crucified was the Alpha and Omega of all his addresses, the fountain and the foundation of his hope and trust. The word came not to Esau, the hunter that stayed not at home; but to Jacob, the plain man that dwelt in tents.

“Amidst the tumult of the routed train,
The sons of false Antimachus were slain;
He, who for bribes his faithless counsels sold,
And voted Helen’s stay for Paris’ gold.”—*Pope*.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five examples in which the noun in apposition shall be in the nominative case, modifying the subject. Five, in which it shall be in the nominative, modifying the predicate noun. Five, in which it shall be in the objective, modifying a noun, used as the object of a verb or preposition.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Fourth?

Explain it.

In apposition, which is the principal term?

What exception to this rule?

When a noun is repeated for the sake of emphasis, how is it parsed?

What is said of the use of a plural term?

What is the rule when possessives are put in apposition?

What is said of the use of titles or names employed to distinguish individuals of a family or class?

What is said of words after *to be*?

What is said of *as* denoting capacity, rank, or office?

What is said of the proper name of a place?

What is said of distributives?

RULE V.

§ 319. A noun or pronoun used to limit the relation of ownership, source or kind, is put in the possessive; e. g., “*Alfred's* knife;” “*Sun's* rays;” “*Webster's* Dictionary.”

EXPLANATION.—A noun in the possessive limits its governing word, by representing it as owned, proceeding from, or describing the thing possessed. “Alfred’s knife;” “Sun’s rays;” “Webster’s Dictionary;”—here *Alfred’s* denotes ownership; *Sun’s*, source; and *Webster’s*, kind.

CAUTION.—Particular care should be taken not to omit the sign of the possessive before participial nouns; and not to use it in the possessive of pronouns.

NOTE.—The relation of the possessive is one of dependence; the name on which the possessive term depends, must therefore be expressed or understood. This dependence may be shown either by a change of termination, or by a preposition; e. g., “*Alfred’s* knife,” = “The knife *of* Alfred.”

REMARK 1.—The name denoting the thing limited, when obvious is often omitted; e. g., “I called at Sheldon’s (*store*) before I left town;” “This book is John’s (*book*).”

REMARK 2.—When two or more nouns are connected in the possessive, expressing joint possession, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last; e. g., “Have you examined *Andrews* and *Stoddard’s* Latin Grammar?”

REMARK 3.—Different things of the same name, belonging to two or more severally, should have the sign of the possessive annexed to each; e. g., “*Johnson’s*, *Webster’s*, and *Walker’s* Dictionary.”

REMARK 4.—Complex nouns in apposition have the sign of the possessive annexed to the last; e. g., “Thomas Jefferson’s administration;” “Give me John the Baptist’s head;” “The Bishop of London’s charge.” Here *Thomas Jefferson’s* is a complex noun in the possessive. In the sentence “Give me John the Baptist’s head,” *John* is in the possessive without the sign, that being annexed to the word *Baptist*, in apposition. In the last example, *London* is in the objective case, used to complete the relation of the preposition *of*, the *’s* belongs properly to *Bishop*, in the possessive limiting *charge*. The true reason for annexing the *’s* to *London* is that the whole phrase “*Bishop of London*” is regarded as one term

REMARK 5.—The possessive is often expressed by the preposition *of* with the objective; e. g., “The residence of my father is in the city of New York.”

(1.) “The residence of my father is in the city of New York;”—in this sentence, “The residence of my father,” and “My father’s residence,” express the same idea. Either form may be used with propriety.

(2.) *Of* does not always denote possession. “A crown of gold,” signifies “A crown made of gold;” “A house of representatives,” signifies “A house consisting of representatives.” In such cases the possessive cannot be used.

(3.) When the idea may be expressed by either of these forms, care should be observed to use that, by which harshness and ambiguity may be avoided. Instead of “his son’s wife’s sister,” we should say, “the sister of his son’s wife.” “The love of God,” may denote either the love which God feels, or the love which is felt towards God; but “God’s love” denotes only the love which God feels.

REMARK 6.—When the singular ends with the sound of *s* or *z*, the *s* after the apostrophe is sometimes omitted to avoid the disagreeable repetition of *s* sounds; e. g.,—“For *righteousness*’ sake;” “For *conscience*’ sake;” “For *Jesus*’ sake.” The apostrophe is sometimes omitted improperly; e. g., “*James*’ book;” “*Miss*’ shoes;” “*Moris*’ agreement.”

REMARK 7.—A participial noun, either alone or modified by other words, may be placed after the possessive case; e. g., “I am opposed to William’s *devoting himself so exclusively to one study*;” “I must object to Alfred’s *leaving home at this season of the year*.” This is one of the most common idioms of our language, and no other case than the possessive should be used in the preceding and similar sentences.

REMARK 8.—The clause of a sentence should never come between the possessive and the object limited; e. g., “The prisoner’s (if I may be permitted to express my opinion) conduct was such as to convey the idea of his guilt to all but his nearest friends;” it should be, “The prisoner’s conduct was such as to convey the idea of his guilt to all but his nearest friends, if I may be permitted to express my opinion.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Edward's portrait does not resemble him much. What was the reason of father's dismissing him before the expiration of the year? For Herodias sake, his brother Philip's wife. That silk was purchased at Sheldons, the mercers in Greensboro'. I will not for Davids thy fathers sake. Your brother married my sons wifes sister. This is the eldest son of the king of Englands. The estate of the corporation is much embarrassed. This picture of Janes does not resemble her much. It is often said, that one mans loss is anothers gain. The tree is known by it's fruit. Mason's and Dixon line has been the theme of much dispute. The worlds government is not left to chance. Asas heart was perfect with the Lord. William's and Mary' College is an old institution. Daniel's Webster speech was much admired for its clearness. Have you examined Brown, and Bullion's Grammars. I admire Wordsworths and Cowpers poems. They obeyed the Protectors (as he was called) mandate. His brothers offence will not condemn him in the estimation of the public. Wisdoms precepts form the good mans happiness. We purchase sugar and coffee at Dormans. You should be subject for conscience sake.

The time of William making the experiment has come. Much depend on this rule being observed. Edward' generous conduct to his orphan brother, was the evenings conversation. The paintings of Reynolds', West, and Lawrence are worthy of the highest admiration. Some seem to have no notion of the same person possessing different accomplishments. They condemned king Corney's, as he was called, dissolute habits. It was the men's, women's, and children's lot to suffer calamities. The bill passed the Lords' house, but was defeated in the

Commons' house. Much depends on your pupil composing frequently. Such will ever be the consequence of youth associating with vicious company. The extent of the prerogative of the president has been ascertained. John's brother's wife's mother is not expected for some weeks. The severity of the illness of the son of the carpenter caused great alarm. We spent an agreeable hour at Wilson, the banker in Selma, a short time since. A mothers tenderness and a fathers care, are natures best gifts. King James translators merely revised former translations.

Wisdoms precepts' form the good mans happiness and interest. Moses rod was turned into a serpent. If you suffer for righteousness sake, you shall be rewarded with life everlasting. It was found necessary to have both the physician's and the surgeons advice. The time of John making the experiment at length arrived. What can be the cause of the president refusing to veto the bill? If we alter the situation of any words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. Such will ever be the effect of youth associating with the company of idlers. It is very probable that this assembly was called, to clear some doubt which the king had about the lawfulness of the Hollanders throwing off the monarchy of Spain, and their withdrawing entirely their allegiance to that crown. These pictures of sister were taken by a very distinguished artist in Charleston.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example in which a possessive noun or pronoun shall limit the subject. Five, the predicate. Five, a noun in apposition. Five, a noun in the objective after a transitive verb or preposition.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Fifth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

When may the noun limited be omitted?

When two or more nouns are connected in the possessive, expressing joint possession, to which is the sign annexed?

What is remarked of different things of the same name belonging to two or more severally?

What is said of complex nouns in apposition?

How is the possessive often expressed?

What is said of the sound of *s* or *z*?

What is said of participial nouns?

What is said of a clause coming between the possessive and the noun limited?

RULE VI.

§ 320. Adjectives relate to nouns which they describe or limit; e. g., “*Good* boys;” “*A* man;” “*The* lady;” “*Either* hat;” “*Five* dollars.”

EXPLANATION.—The word adjective signifies *added to*. Its office is to modify the noun by describing or limiting its meaning; e. g., “*Good* boys;” “*A* man;” &c.—Here the office of the adjective *good* is to describe boys; in the example, “*A* man,” *a* limits man.

CAUTION.—Adjectives denoting one must have nouns in the singular; those denoting more than one, in the plural; e. g., “*This* girl;” “*Those* boys.”

REMARK 1.—Anything used as a noun, an infinitive, participle, or clause, may have an adjective belonging to it; e. g., “To use *profane* language is *foolish* and *wicked*,” “George and John are more *studious* than William.”

REMARK 2.—An infinitive and a participial noun are sometimes found with an adjective after them not qualifying any particular noun, but used indefinitely; e. g., “To be *good* is the surest way of being *happy*.”

REMARK 3.—Adjectives without a noun expressed are often used as nouns; e. g., “The *rich* and the *poor* meet together,” “Of books, *some* are good, and *some* are bad.”

REMARK 4.—Two or more adjectives expressing qualities that belong each to a different object of the same name, and that expressed only with the last, should have a definitive before each; e. g., “*The* red and *the* white rose.” So “*The* first and *the* second page.” It has become common, even with good writers, to drop the second definitive, and change the singular into the plural; e. g., “The first and second pages.”

REMARK 5.—When two objects are spoken of or compared, use the comparative degree; when more than two, the superlative; e. g., “James is the *more industrious* boy of the two; but Alfred, the *most industrious* pupil in school.”

REMARK 6.—The comparative is used in the manner of the superlative, when two of the same class are compared; e. g., “John is the *wiser* of the two.” We sometimes say, “the *wisest* of the two.”

REMARK 7.—Double comparatives and superlatives should be avoided in speaking and writing; e. g., “*More wiser*,” “*lesser*,” “*worser*,” “*most straitest*.” But *lesser* in some cases is used by good writers; e. g., “*Lesser Asia*,” “Like *lesser* streams.”

REMARK 8.—Adjectives that have in themselves a superlative signification, and such as do not admit of increase or diminution, should not be compared; e. g., *Chief, extreme, perfect, right, universal, supreme, square, round, &c., &c.*

REMARK 9.—Adjectives are often used to qualify a noun qualified by another; e. g., “*Ripe winter* fruits.” In such cases that which relates more nearly to the noun should be placed next to it; e. g., “My sister has a nice new book,” not a “*new nice* book.”

REMARK 10.—Adjectives often qualify nouns as the effect of verbs; e. g., “Sweet apples boil *hard*.”

REMARK 11.—The definitive *a* should be used before words beginning with a consonant, or *u* sounded like *yu*; e. g., “*A* man;” “*A* unicorn.” *An* is used only before words beginning with a vowel, or silent *h*; e. g., “*An* apple;” “*An* hour.”

REMARK 12.—When two or more descriptive adjectives belong to a noun representing but one object, the definitive adjective should not be repeated; e. g., “*A* red and white flag;” that is, one flag having two colors. But when two or more adjectives belong to a noun used to represent as many different objects as there are adjectives employed, the definitive adjective must be repeated; e. g., “We saw *a* black, *a* white, *a* bay, and *a* roan horse;” that is, four horses of the colors described.

REMARK 13.—The definitives *a* and *the* are sometimes used adverbially to modify adjectives or adverbs; e. g., “*A* few men help *a* little;” “*The* oftener I see it, *the* better I like it.”

REMARK 14.—The definitive adjective *the* is sometimes used before a singular noun to denote a species; e. g., “*The* horse is a noble animal.”

REMARK 15.—A noun taken in a general sense is commonly used without a definitive; e. g., “*Man* is mortal;” “*Vice* is odious;” “*Fruit* is abundant.”

REMARK 16.—*A* or *an*, *one*, *this*, *that*, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, and the ordinals *first*, *second*, *third*, &c., &c., relate to nouns of the singular number only, or such as convey a collective idea; e. g., “*A* man;” “*One* boy;” “*Each* committee;” “*Every* person.”

REMARK 17.—*These*, *those*, *few*, *several*, *all*, and the cardinals above one, relate to nouns of the plural number only; e. g., “*These* men;” “*Those* boys;” &c., &c.

REMARK 18.—*Former*, *latter*, *the*, *any*, *such*, *some*, *what*, &c., &c., relate to nouns of the singular or plural number; e. g., “*The* children are in *the* garden;” “*Such* fruit is scarce.”

REMARK 19.—When objects are contrasted, *that* and *those* refer to the first mentioned, and *this* and *these* to the last; e. g., “Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; *that* ennobles the mind, *this* debases it.”

REMARK 20.—An adjective is commonly placed before its noun; e. g., “*A good citizen*;” “*A virtuous woman is an ornament to society*.”

(1.) Adjectives should be placed as near their nouns as possible to avoid ambiguity; e. g., “*A field of fine oats*.”

(2.) When an adjective modifies two or more nouns connected by *and*, it is usually expressed before the first, and understood before the others; e. g., “*He was a man of great wisdom and moderation*.”

REMARK 21.—An adjective is placed after its noun:

(1.) Generally when it qualifies a pronoun; e. g., “*We saw him faint and weary*.”

(2.) When other words depend on the adjective; e. g., “*A child sick of the fever*.”

(3.) When it is predicated of the subject; e. g., “*God is good*;” “*Jack son was brave*.”

REMARK 22.—In poetry and a few other cases, the adjective is placed either before or after its noun, and often some distance from it.

REMARK 23.—Quality is expressed by adjectives; manner, by adverbs; e. g., “*We grow (become) old*.” “*Corn grows rapidly (in a rapid manner)*.”

REMARK 24.—An adjective is used when the sense is nearly expressed by the use of *to be* or *to become*; and an adverb when expressed by the corresponding adjunct; e. g.,

Adjectives.

Adverbs.

Men grow (become) *old*. The boy grows *rapidly* (in a rapid manner).

She looks (is) *cold*. She looks *coldly* (in a cold manner) on him.

We feel (are) *warm*. We feel *warmly* (in a warm manner) the insult.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Jane is more taller than Martha. An industriouser scholar is esteemed by his teacher. John is a worser boy than Thomas. Henry has a bigger hat than his brother. John has mucher peaches than Thomas. Williams conduct displayed the most

sincerest candor. Was the rumor in regard to Henry an universal one? Robert is a honorable and trusty lad. John Henderson gave Mary an red apple. An just man always acts consistently. Them boys are low bred. I will thank you for that sauffers. He maintained an uniform conduct. Where have you laid them scissors? The most highest created man for his own glory. Have you any kid gentlemans gloves? I have not seen Henry this ten days. In the accomplishment of that plan the most extremest caution must be observed, or defeat is certain. Martha and Jane are both well-dressed; in their appearance Martha is the neatest, but Jane the most showy. I want to obtain a mirror of the most perfect polish.

Have you any black lady's gloves? I heard an Unitarian preach yesterday. Mason is a man of the most smallest caliber in Columbia. Them books were sold for a lesser price than cost. John walked two mile in half a hour. These kind of books are very scarce.

Henry formed expensive habits, and by those means became very poor. That very subject which we were discussing is yet involved in mystery. Draw that line more perpendicular. If you are fond of those sort of things, you may have them. A more healthier place is not to be found in Alabama, or any other State in the Union. Who broke that tongs? That tree is sixty foot high. Wealth and poverty are both temptations to man; this tends to excite pride, that discontent, The mocking-bird's note is the most sweetest in the grove. I never read them books. Will you take some of those molasses? If either of these two qualities are wanting, the language is imperfect. Every one of us have recited our lesson. Them men spoke to me. Each of you are entitled to your share. There was a blot on the first or second pages. This vessel of which you spoke yesterday, sailed in the evening. This figure is a

more perfect circle than that is. A worser evil yet awaits us. If you are fond of those sort of things, you are welcome to them. The first and second verse of the ode are better than the third and fourth. It is said that a fleet of six sails have just entered the bay. Religion raises men above themselves, irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of earth, this opens for them a prospect in the skies.

Uncle bought an old span of horses, and a new set of harness. Texas is larger than any State in the Union. Jane is always talking; and by these means, she renders herself ridiculous. Go quick to school; enter the room slow and light. This sentiment has become too universal to be easily changed. Roberts letter to his parents was written neat. I regret to learn that he has become so extreme negligent. Give me a cool glass of water. William has prudence and industry, by that means he may be able to retrieve his losses. Your father told me what an exceeding long journey he took to visit his parents.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example in which a definitive adjective shall modify the subject. Five, in which a descriptive adjective shall modify the predicate nominative. Five, in which a definitive, and descriptive adjective shall modify the object of a verb or preposition. Five, in which the descriptive adjective, with the copula, shall form the predicate. Five, in which the adjective shall be of the comparative degree. Five, in which it shall be of the superlative degree.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Sixth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What is said of anything used as a noun?

What is remarked of an infinitive and participial adjective?

What is said of an adjective without a noun expressed?

How is the definitive used before two or more adjectives expressing qualities that belong each to a different object of the same name, and that name expressed only with the last?

When two objects are spoken of or compared, what degree is used?

—— more than two?

What is said of the comparative?

—— of double comparatives and superlatives?

—— of adjectives having a superlative signification?

How are adjectives often used?

How do adjectives often qualify nouns?

How is the definitive *a* used?

—— *an*?

When two or more descriptive adjectives belong to a noun representing but one object, what is said of the definitive?

When two or more adjectives belong to a noun used to represent as many different objects as there are adjectives employed, how must the definitive be used?

How are the definitives *a* and *the* sometimes used?

What is said of the definitive adjective before a singular noun?

What is said of a noun without a definitive?

What is said of *a* or *an*, *one*, *this*, *that*, &c., &c.?

—— *these*, *those*, *few*, *several*, &c., &c.?

What is said of *former, latter, the, any, &c., &c.*?

When objects are contrasted, what is said of the terms used?

What is said of the position of adjectives?

When is an adjective placed after its noun?

What is said of the position of the adjective in poetry, c., &c.?

How is quality expressed?

——— manner?

When do we use an adjective?

——— an adverb?

RULE VII.

§ 321. Pronouns must agree with their antecedents in gender, number and person; e. g., “William went to *his* play;” “That man is happy *who* lives virtuously;” “*Whoever* studies will become learned;” “*What* did you do?”

EXPLANATION.—The term antecedent means *going before*. “William went to his play;”—here *William* is the antecedent of *his*. “*His*” is of the masculine gender, third, singular, to agree with it.

CAUTION.—This rule may be violated by using a singular pronoun for a plural, or a plural for a singular; e. g., “Pride and poverty will soon show itself” (themselves).

NOTE.—The improper use of *who* and *which* should be carefully avoided; e. g., “The lady *which* I saw, admired the rose *whom* you gave me.” “The lady *whom* I saw, admired the rose *which* you gave me.”

REMARK 1.—A pronoun referring to two or more antecedents taken together, agrees with them in the plural number; e. g., “John and Thomas desire to assist *their* teacher.”

REMARK 2.—A pronoun referring to two or more antecedents separately, agrees with them in the singular number; e. g., “John, not Thomas, *lost* his book.”

REMARK 3.—When either of the antecedents is of the plural number, the pronoun representing them must be plural; e. g., “Neither Thomas nor his cousins could find *their* books.”

REMARK 4.—When the antecedents are of different persons, the pronoun agrees with the first in preference to the second, and the second in preference to the third; e. g., “John and I have brought *our* books, but you and Thomas have left *yours*.”

REMARK 5.—Collective nouns in the singular may have pronouns in the plural, when reference is made to the individuals composing the collection; e. g., “The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as *their* chief good.”

REMARK 6.—The pronoun *it* is used variously :

(1.) With impersonal verbs, it does not represent a noun, but in connection with the verb expresses merely a state of things; e. g., “*It* rains.”

(2.) Before the verb *to be*, it may refer to a noun or pronoun in the predicate of either the singular or plural number, and of any person and gender; e. g., “*It* is a *boy* who is coming;” “Be not afraid, *it* is *I*;” “*It* is *books* that I love.” In such constructions it may be regarded as an expletive used to introduce the sentence in a particular manner.

(3.) It sometimes stands for the state or condition of things; e. g., “*It* shall be well with the righteous.”

(4.) It is sometimes used without reference to the gender or number of the noun represented; e. g., “The nurse took the child, when *it* cried.”

REMARK 7.—Interrogative pronouns commonly refer to objects unknown to the speaker; hence the gender, number, and person must be assumed until the person or thing enquired for becomes known. Although the pronoun in such cases may not agree with the actual object in question, consistency should be preserved in every reference to the assumed one; e. g., “Who *were* not pleased with the spectacle *they* just witnessed.”

REMARK 8.—The English language being destitute of a pronoun of the third person, which may apply equally to either sex, an erroneous use of *they*, referring to *person*, *any one*, or *some one*, has been adopted to conceal the gender, or avoid an awkward use of *he*, or *she*; e. g., “If any one would test these rules for the preservation of health, *they* (*he* or *she*) must persevere in all states of weather.” The want of such a pronoun is still more obvious when the speaker has a definite person before his mind, and wishes to conceal the gender; e. g., “The person who gave me this information wishes to conceal ——— name.”

REMARK 9.—When the antecedent is used figuratively, the pronoun represented must be of the same gender; e. g., “Give to repose the solemn hour *she* claims.” “Grim darkness furls *his* leaden shroud.”

REMARK 10.—Relative and interrogative pronouns are usually placed at the beginning of their clauses, even though the order of construction would assign another position; e. g., “The professor had but one son, *whom* he educated himself.”

REMARK 11.—When the pronoun has two antecedents of different persons, it agrees with the nearest; e. g., “I who command you will be obeyed.”

REMARK 12.—The pronoun should be placed near its antecedent, to avoid ambiguity; e. g., “John excelled his brother, *whom* all thought the best scholar.”

REMARK 13.—The relative is sometimes omitted; e. g., “This is the man (*whom*) I saw.”

REMARK 14.—The relative *who* is applied to persons, *which* to inferior animals or things without life; e. g., “This is the person *who* called;” “I have the book *which* he spoke of.”

REMARK 15.—The construction of the relative is independent of its antecedent. It may be in the *nominative case* as the subject of a finite verb;—*nominative independent*, *possessive case*, or in the *objective case* governed by a transitive verb, or by a preposition; e. g., “They *who* speak;” “We ordered the horse to be harnessed, *which being done*, we commenced our journey;” “He hastened to the palace of his sovereign, into *whose* presence his hoary locks and mournful visage soon obtained admission;”

"*Whom* did you take him to be?" "The man *whom* they call the janitor;" "This is the rule to *which* we called his attention."

REMARK 16.—When the relative is governed by a preposition, it is generally best to place the latter at the beginning of the clause; e. g., "This is the subject to which he alluded."

REMARK 17.—The relative *that* is used in preference to *who* or *which* in the following cases:

- (1.) After the superlative degree; e. g., "It is the best *that* I can do."
- (2.) After *same* and *all*; e. g., "He is the same person *that* I took him to be;" "It is all *that* he could find."
- (3.) After *who*; e. g., "Who *that* saw it believed?"
- (4.) After *it* used indefinitely; e. g., "It was he *that* did it."
- (5.) Whenever it is a matter of doubt whether *who* or *which* should be used.

REMARK 18.—*That* never admits of a preposition before it, but it may be the object of a preposition following it. We cannot say, "This is the man *of that* he spoke;" but we may say, "This is the man *that* he spoke *of*." *That* is sometimes used when a preposition is omitted; e. g., "In the day *that* thou eatest thereof."

REMARK 19.—It is inelegant to use *who*, or *which* and *that* in a series of clauses having the same antecedent. It would be improper to say, "The man *that* met us and *whom* we saw;" it should be, "The man *who* met us," or "*that* we saw."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Jane and Martha are careful of her books. I hope every body in the house will answer for themselves. Every person should love their friend. You and I have broken my window. After eating its breakfast our company left. This is the man which spoke to you about working by the day. Susan and Mary will come, and she will remain a week. The child who you saw is quite sick. Rebekah took goodly raiment and put

them on Jacob. He is like a beast of prey who destroys without pity. The child whom we have just seen is improperly attended to. The Saviour instructed and fed the crowds who surrounded him. They which seek wisdom will find her. One should not think too favorably of themselves. The moon appears, but the light is not his own. The multitude eagerly pursue pleasure as its chief good. The council were divided in its sentiments. One cannot be too careful of their reputation. This is the vice whom I most cordially hate. The nations who have the best rulers are most happy. It is the best situation which can be got. This is the same horse who you saw yesterday. I who speak unto you am he. The little child who was placed in their midst began to sing and prattle. The public are informed that its interest are well secured. The committee were about equally divided in its opinions in regard to the proper time to commence action.

The court who gives currency to such manners should be exemplary. If you intend to be a teacher, who you cannot be without education, you must improve every moment in study. This is the same cow you purchased a few weeks since. The lady and the lapdog which we saw in the window have disappeared. The majority was disposed to adopt the measure which they at first opposed. The church have no power to adopt the measure which it advocates. The story with all its additions were believed. A person can content themselves on small means. Those which desire to be happy should be careful to do what is right. The judge which pronounced the sentence was an upright man. I do not blame any person of being tender of their reputation. I have tasted the molasses, and they are excellent. The mind, as well as the body of man, demands his proper food. Discontent and disappointment manifested itself in her counte-

nance. Hatred and animosity are inconsistent with Christian charity; guard against the slightest indulgence of it. A man is not such a machine as a clock or watch, which will move only as they are moved. The meeting was not unanimous, and it separated without coming to a decision. Henry met several crowds on the road, who were going to court. It is the best which can be got. Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw. I do not think of any one who should incur censure for being tender of their reputation. Humility is one of the most amiable virtues which we can possess. If he will not hear his best friends, whom shall be sent to admonish him?

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a personal pronoun in the nominative singular. Five, containing a personal pronoun in the possessive singular. Five, containing a personal pronoun in the objective plural. Five, in which a relative pronoun shall be in the nominative singular, three referring to a person, and two to animals or things. Five, in which the relative shall be in the possessive or objective case. Five, in which an interrogative pronoun shall be used in the nominative case; five, in the possessive; and five, in the objective.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Seventh?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What is observed in the note?

When a noun or pronoun refers to two or more antecedents taken together, how must it agree with them?

When a noun or pronoun refers to two or more antecedents taken separately, how must it agree with them?

When either of the antecedents is in the plural number, in what case must the noun or pronoun representing them be?

When the antecedents are of different persons, how must the pronoun agree with them?

What is said of collective nouns in the singular?

How is the pronoun *it* used?

What is said of interrogative pronouns?

Of what is our language destitute, and what errors are the consequences?

What is said of the pronoun when the antecedent is used figuratively?

When the pronoun has two antecedents of different persons, with which should it agree?

Where should the pronoun be placed?

What is said of the relative?

What is said of the use of *who* and *which*?

What remarked of relatives in construction?

When the relative is governed by a preposition, what is its usual position?

What is remarked of the use of the relative *that*?

Where is the preposition placed?

What is remarked of the use of *who*, *which*, and *that* in a series of clauses?

RULE VIII.

§ 322. Intransitive and passive verbs take the same case after them, as before them, when

they refer to the same person or thing; e. g., “Honesty is the best *policy* ;” “I know him to be a good *man* ;” “Father was chosen *librarian*.”

EXPLANATION.—In this construction, the noun after the verb is used as the attribute of the proposition. “Honesty is the best *policy* ;” here *honesty* is the subject of the verb *is*, and *policy*, meaning the same thing, is put in the same case after it.

CAUTION.—This rule may be violated by making the cases before and after the verb different; e. g., “I am him” (he).

REMARK 1.—Verbs that admit the same case after as before them, are sometimes called Copulative Verbs. They are such as *become*, *seem*, *appear* ; and the passive form of *deem*, *style*, *name*, *call*, *consider*, and others.

REMARK 2.—The usual position of the predicate nominative is after the verb. But in direct and indirect questions, and inverted sentences, it is frequently placed first; e. g., “Is James a student?” “Who is he?” “A trainband *Captain* eke was he.”

REMARK 3.—The predicate nominative may be anything that can be the subject of a verb; e. g., “John is a *poet* ;” “It is *I* ;” “The opinion is *that he will not live*.”

REMARK 4.—By a peculiar idiom of the English language, the neuter pronoun *it*, as subject, may represent a noun or pronoun as predicate of any number, person, or gender; e. g., “It is *I* ;” “It is *she* ;” “It is *they* ;” “It is *Maria*.”

REMARK 5.—In an abridged proposition, the predicate nominative may remain unchanged, may be changed, but never dropped.

(1.) It remains unchanged in the nominative when the subject remains in the nominative; e. g., “As a *youth* was their *leader*, what could they do?”—“A *youth* being their *leader*, what could they do?” Here *leader* is in the nominative, after the participle *being*, because *youth* is in the nominative case.

(2.) It remains unchanged in the nominative, relating logically (not grammatically) to the omitted or altered subject, when in connection with the infinitive, or participle of the copula, it forms a verbal noun; e. g., "That one should be a *thief* is strange;"—"Being a *thief*," or "To be a *thief* is strange." "I was not aware that *it* was *he*." Here *thief* and *he* are in the nominative after *being*, or *to be*, because the subject, being either changed to the possessive or dropped, has no power over the predicate noun.

(3.) It is changed to the objective when the subject is changed to the objective, or when the noun, which the omitted subject would represent, is in the objective; e. g., "I believed that it was *he*;"—"I believed it to be *him*." "We found a plant *which* is called the *lilac*;"—"We found a *plant* called the *lilac*." Here *he* becomes *him*, because *it* is changed to the objective, and *lilac* is in the objective, because *which* being dropped, it derives its case from the antecedent *plant*.

REMARK 6.—The form of the verb is not affected by the predicate nominative, but the subject; e. g., "Apples are *fruit*;" "His food was *vegetables*."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

I suppose it to be he. Whom do you suppose him to be? It is them that deserve the blame, not that innocent child. William did not know it was him. It is not me that he is angry with. Sarah believed it to be she. It was them that deserve the blame. Whom do men say that I am? It was not him that said it. Was it me that said so? I understood it to have been he. Do you think it could have been them? I am certain it was not me. I would not accept the office, if I were him. You would probably do the same thing if you were her. I understood it to be we. It is them, you said, deserve most blame. It may have been him, but there is no proof of

it. Let her be whom she, no one will molest her. She is the lady whom you said it was. She is the person who I understood her to be. His pavilion were the dark waters, and thick clouds of the sky. It was me who borrowed the knife of your brother, and him who carried it back. I know not whether it was them who managed the business so badly, but I am certain it was not him. Life and death is the power of the tongue. He thought it to be I, but it was not me. The wages of sin are death.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences in which the attribute shall be a noun of the singular number. Five, in which it shall be in the plural number. Five, in which it shall be a pronoun. Five, in which the attribute shall be an infinitive, or a clause of a sentence. Five, having the attribute before the verb.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Eight?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What are such verbs as admit the same case after or before them, called?

Repeat the list.

What is the usual position of the predicate nominative?

What may the predicate nominative be?

What is said of the neuter pronoun *it*?

What is said of the predicate nominative in abridged propositions?

What is said of the form of the verb?

RULE IX.

§ 323. A preposition is a word used to show the relation between a noun or pronoun and some preceding word; e. g., “Washington was called the father *of* his country;” “Uncle went *from* Columbia *to* Charleston.”

EXPLANATION.—“Washington was called the father of his country;” “Uncle went from Columbia to Charleston;”—in the first sentence *of* expresses the relation between *father* and *country*; in the second *from* shows the relation between *went* and *Columbia*; and *to* between *went* and *Charleston*.

REMARK 1.—The noun or pronoun following the preposition, is always dependent on some term, usually a *preceding* one, and the preposition is used to show that dependence. Properly speaking, the objective is not the object of the preposition, but of the preceding term. In the case of the transitive verb there are two terms, the verb itself and the objective, and the relation between them is closer, if possible, than between those in which the preposition is used; the objective is not called the *object* of that relation, but rather of the antecedent term, the verb. Yet custom makes the noun the *object* of the preposition.

REMARK 2.—The preceding word, or antecedent is sometimes omitted e. g., “In a word, he is ruined;”—“To tell it in a word, he is ruined.”

REMARK 3.—The noun or pronoun after the preposition is sometimes omitted; e. g., “He gave assistance to (*him*) whoever had need of it.”

REMARK 4.—The use of two prepositions before a single noun, though inelegant, often contributes to perspicuity and brevity, and has the sanction of many good writers; e. g., “Men’s passions and interests mix *with*, and are expressed *in*, the decisions of the intellect.”

REMARK 5.—Two or more words are often used together as a compound preposition; e. g., “*From between* the arcades the eye glances up on a bit of blue sky, or a passing cloud.”

REMARK 6.—The preposition in general precedes its relational word. In poetry and interrogative sentences it is often separated; e. g., “Wild Carron’s lonely wood *among*.” “Whom did he speak *to*?”

REMARK 7.—Care should be taken to employ such prepositions as clearly express the relation intended. The following list may be found useful for reference:

Abhorrence <i>of</i> .	Analogy <i>to, with</i> .
Abound <i>in, with</i> .	Antipathy <i>to, against</i> .
Abridge <i>from</i> .	Approve <i>of</i> .
Absent <i>from</i> .	Array <i>with, in</i> .
Access <i>to</i> .	Arrive <i>at</i> .
Accommodate <i>to</i> .	Ascendant <i>over</i> .
Accord <i>with</i> .	Ask <i>of</i> a person ; <i>for</i> a thing ; <i>after</i> what we wish to hear of
Accuse <i>of</i> .	Aspire <i>to, after</i> .
Acquaint <i>with</i> .	Associate <i>with, seldom to</i> .
Acquit <i>of</i> .	Assent <i>to</i> .
Acquiesce <i>in</i> .	Assure <i>of</i> .
Adapted <i>to</i> .	Attain <i>to</i> .
Adequate <i>to</i> .	Averse <i>to, from</i> .
Adhere <i>to</i> .	Banish <i>from, to</i> .
Adjudge <i>to</i> .	Believe <i>in, sometimes on</i> .
Admonish <i>of</i> .	Bereft <i>of</i> .
Address <i>to</i> .	Bestow <i>upon, on</i> .
Admission (access) <i>to</i> .	Betray <i>to</i> a person ; <i>into</i> a thing.
Admission (entrance) <i>into</i> .	Boast <i>of</i> .
Advantage <i>over, of</i> .	Bind <i>to, in</i> .
Affinity <i>to, with</i> .	Blush <i>at</i> .
Affection <i>for</i> .	Border <i>upon, on</i> .
Agree <i>with</i> a person ; <i>to</i> a proposition, from another ; <i>upon</i> a thing among themselves.	Call <i>on</i> a person ; <i>at</i> a place.
Agreeable <i>to</i> .	Capacity <i>for</i> .
Allude <i>to</i> .	Careful <i>of, in</i> .
Alter <i>to, alteration in</i> .	Catch <i>at</i> .
Amerce <i>in</i> .	Change (exchange) <i>for</i> ; (alter) <i>to, into</i> .
Annex <i>to</i> .	Charge <i>on</i> a person ; <i>with</i> a thing.

- Compare *with*, in respect of quality ;
 to, by way of illustration.
 Comply, compliance *with*.
 Composed *of*.
 Concede *to*.
 Concur *with* a person ; *in* a measure ;
 to an effect.
 Condescend *to*.
 Confer *on*, *upon*.
 Confide *in*.
 Conformable, conformity *to*, *with*.
 Congenial *to*.
 Congratulate *upon*, *on*.
 Consonant *to*.
 Consist (to be composed) *of*, (to be
 comprised) *in*.
 Consistent *with*.
 Contrast *with*.
 Conversant *with* men ; *in* things ; *about*
 and *among* are less proper.
 Convict *of* a crime ; *in* a penalty.
 Copy *after* a person ; *from* a thing.
 Correspond (to be consistent) *with* ;
 (answering or suitable) *to*.
 Correspondence *with*.
 Cured *of*.
 Debar *from*.
 Defend (others) *from* ;—(ourselves)
 against.
 Demand *of*.
 Denounce *against* a person.
 Depend, dependent *upon*, *on*.
 Deprive *of*.
 Derogate *from*, derogatory *to*.
 Derogation *from*, *of*.
 Despair *of*.
 Despoil *of*.
 Devolve *on*.
 Die, perish *of* a disease ; *by* an in-
 strument, or violence ; *for* another.
 Differ, different *from*.
 Difficulty *in*.
 Diminish *from*, diminution *of*.
 Disabled *from*.
 Disagree *with* a person ; *to* a proposal.
 Disagreeable *to*.
 Disappointed *of* what we do not get ;
 in what does not answer when got.
 Disapprove *of*.
 Discourage *from* ; discouragement *to*.
 Disgusted *at*, *with*.
 Dispose *of* ; disposed (adj.) *to*.
 Dispossess *of*.
 Disqualify *for*.
 Dissent *from*.
 Distinct *from*.
 Divested *of*.
 Divide *between* two, *among* more.
 Eager *in*, *on*, *of*, *for*, *after*.
 Embark *in*.
 Employ *in*, *on*, *about*.
 Enamored *with*.
 Encroach *upon*, *on*.
 Endeavor *after* a thing.
 Engage *in* a work ; *for* a time.
 Enjoin *upon*.
 Entrance *into*.
 Equal *to*, *with*.
 Equivalent *to*.
 Espouse *to*.
 Estimated *at*.
 Exception *from*, *to*.
 Exclude, exclusion *from*.
 Exclusive *of*.

- Expelled *from*.
 Expert *at* (before a noun); *in* (before an active participle).
 Fall *under* disgrace; *from* a tree; *into* a pit; *to* work; *upon* an enemy.
 Familiar *to*, *with*; a thing is familiar *to* us—we *with* it.
 Fawn *upon*, *on*.
 Followed *by*.
 Fond *of*.
 Foreign *to*, sometimes *from*.
 Founded *upon*, *on*, *in*.
 Free *from*.
 Fruitful *in*.
 Full *of*.
 Glad *of* something gained by ourselves; *at* something that befalls another.
 Grateful *to* a person; *for* favors.
 Hanker *after*.
 Hinder *from*.
 Hold *of*; as, "Take hold *of* me."
 Impose *upon*.
 Incorporate (active transitive) *into*; (intransitive or passive) *with*.
 Inculcate *on*.
 Independent *of*.
 Indulge *with* a thing not habitual; *in* a thing habitual.
 Indulgent *to*.
 Influence *on*, *over*, *with*.
 Inform *of*, *about*, *concerning*.
 Initiate *into* a place; *in* an art.
 Inquire.—(See *ask*.)
 Inroad *into*.
 Inseparable *from*.
 Insinuate *into*.
 Insist *upon*.
 Instruct *in*.
 Inspection (prying) *into*; (superintendence) *over*.
 Intent *upon*, *on*.
 Interfere *with*.
 Intervene *between*.
 Introduce *into* a place; *to* a person.
 Intrude *into* a place enclosed; *upon* a person, or a thing not enclosed.
 Inured *to*.
 Invested *with*, *in*.
 Lame *of*.
 Level *with*.
 Long *for*, *after*.
 Look *on* what is present; *for* what is absent; *after* what is distant.
 Made *of*.
 Made much *of*.
 Marry *to*.
 Martyr *for*.
 Militate *against*.
 Mistrustful *of*.
 Need *of*.
 Obedient *to*.
 Object *to*, *against*.
 Observance, observation *of*.
 Obtrude *upon*, *on*.
 Occasion *for*.
 Offensive *to*.
 Operate *upon*, *on*.
 Opposite, opposition *to*.
 Partake *of*; participate *of*, *in*.
 Penetrate *into*.
 Persevere *in*.
 Pitch *upon*.
 Pour *in*.

Prefer <i>to, over, above.</i>	Rich <i>in.</i>
Preference <i>to, over.</i>	Rob <i>of.</i>
Preferable <i>to.</i>	Rule <i>over.</i>
Prefix <i>to.</i>	Share <i>in, of.</i>
Prejudice <i>against.</i>	Sick <i>of.</i>
Preside <i>over.</i>	Significant <i>of.</i>
Prevent <i>from.</i>	Similar <i>to.</i>
Prevail (to persuade) <i>with, on, upon,</i> (to overcome) <i>over, against.</i>	Sink <i>into, beneath.</i>
Prey <i>on, upon.</i>	Skilful (before a noun) <i>in</i> ; (before a participle) <i>at, in.</i>
Productive <i>of.</i>	Strain <i>out.</i>
Profit <i>by.</i>	Strip <i>of.</i>
Protect others <i>from</i> ; ourselves <i>against.</i>	Submit <i>to.</i>
Pronounce <i>against</i> a person; <i>on</i> a thing.	Sent <i>to.</i>
Provide <i>with, for.</i>	Swerve <i>from.</i>
Proud <i>of.</i>	Taste <i>of</i> , means actual enjoyment;— taste <i>for</i> , means capacity or genius <i>for.</i>
Purge <i>of, away.</i>	Tax <i>with</i> (for example, a crime, an act); <i>for</i> (a purpose, the state).
Quarrel <i>with.</i>	Thankful <i>for.</i>
Reckon <i>on, upon.</i>	Think <i>of, on.</i>
Reconcile (to friendship) <i>to</i> ; (to make consistent) <i>with.</i>	Touch <i>at.</i>
Reduce (subdue) <i>under</i> ; (in other cases) <i>to.</i>	Unite (transitive) <i>to</i> , (intransitive) <i>with.</i>
Reflect <i>upon, on.</i>	Unison <i>with, to.</i>
Regard <i>for</i> ; in regard <i>to.</i>	Useful <i>for.</i>
Rely <i>upon, on.</i>	Value <i>upon, on.</i>
Replete <i>with.</i>	Vest, before the possessor, <i>in</i> ; be- fore the thing possessed, <i>with.</i>
Reproached <i>for.</i>	Wait <i>upon, on.</i>
Resemblance <i>to.</i>	Witness <i>of.</i>
Resolve <i>on.</i>	Worthy, unworthy <i>of.</i> But after these, <i>of</i> is generally omitted.
Respect <i>to</i> ; in respect <i>to, of.</i>	
Restore <i>to.</i>	

REMARK 8.—*Into* is used only after verbs of motion, and implies *en-
trance*. *In* is used after verbs of motion or rest, and denotes situation,

but never entrance; e. g., "Father went *into* the omnibus, and rode *in* it to the boat."

REMARK 9.—The preposition should be placed as near as possible to its relational word. A wrong position often produces nonsense; e. g., "The man was digging a well, *with* a Roman nose."

REMARK 10.—The terms of relation, between which a preposition may be used, are various. The former or antecedent term may be a noun, an adjective, a pronoun, a verb, a participle, or even an adverb. In some instances we find not only one preposition put before another, but even a conjunction, or an exclamation used on this side; e. g. "*Because* of offences;" "*Alas* for him!"

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

I must beg to differ with you in relation to the opinion just expressed. Many of our most valuable citizens died by the yellow fever last year. It is stated that Socrates came to his death with poison. It must not be, such conduct is derogatory from his character. His party was made up from such men. There is necessity of prompt action. Did you say there was no need on it? He will not comply to my condition. Milton may be compared in Homer. Do you reside in the Saratoga Springs? We touched in Charleston on our way for Cuba. Thomas has gone for Boston with his uncle, and proposes to remain with him during the vacation. Every change is not to the better, we have learned from experience. O father! did you know that the bucket had fallen under the well? Go and be reconciled with your brother. I do not want him as I have no occasion of his services. Have you a friend to whom you may confide? William finds great difficulty of writing. You may rely in the truth of what he says. Come in the house. Your remark is founded with truth.

Can you accommodate me to a small loan for a short time? They divided the fruit between themselves. He was eager of recommending him to his fellow-citizens. Changed for a worse shape it cannot be. Favors are not always bestowed to the most deserving. It is hard to reconcile such conduct to your profession. A man had four sons, and he divided his property between them. John and James intend to favor us in their company. In the name of drugs and plants, the mistake in a word may endanger life. And the apostles and elders came together for to consider on this matter. Such a verb cannot admit of an objective case after it. Some of these situations are termed cases, and are expressed by additions to the noun instead of by separate words. How short are my expressions of its excellency! Let us endeavor to establish to ourselves an interest in him who holds the reins of creation. Their efforts seemed to anticipate on the spirit, which became so general afterwards. I was prevented reading a letter which would have undeceived me.

We hear it stated that he was dependent of his father for the means of subsistence. Such examples must be followed with appropriate prepositions. Virtue and vice differ widely with each other. Neither Robert nor James profit from experience. Those children have a great resemblance with each other. Our senator was eager of recommending the measure. He has a capacity of enjoyment. We have no occasion of his services. I think you have bestowed them to the most deserving that could be found in that purpose. William accused Mason for having attempted to injure him in the estimation of one that he regarded. The boys quarreled among each other as they went from school. You have strong prejudices to my cause. Maria's sobriety is no derogation to her understanding. Strange to tell! he died for thirst. William and Robert have

just read a tale founded on facts. Need I tell you, your father has the greatest abhorrence to such company?

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of the preposition and its object limiting a noun. Five, in which the adjunct shall limit a verb. Five, in which it shall limit an adjective. Five, in which it shall limit an adverb.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Ninth?

Explain it.

Give the substance of Remark First.

What is said of the antecedent?

What is said of the noun or pronoun after a preposition?

What is said of the use of two prepositions before a single noun?

How are two or more words often used?

What is observed of the position of the preposition?

What is observed in Remark Seventh?

What is observed of *into*? ——— *in*?

Where should the preposition be placed?

What is said of the terms of relationship?

RULE X.

§ 324. A noun or pronoun used to complete the relation of a preposition must be in the objective case; e. g., "Washington was called the father

of his *country*;" "Uncle went from *Columbia* to *Charleston*."

EXPLANATION.—"Washington was called the father of his country;" "Uncle went from Columbia to Charleston;"—in the first example *country* completes the relation expressed by the preposition *of*; in the second, *Columbia* completes the relation expressed by *from*, and *Charleston* that expressed by *to*.

CAUTION.—This rule is violated by putting the noun or pronoun completing the relation of the preposition in any other case than the objective.

REMARK 1.—A preposition may be followed by a noun, pronoun, participial noun, phrase, or a dependent clause; e. g., "For *Robert*;" "On *receiving* his diploma;" "Much depends on *his advices*;" "Much will depend on who the commissioners are."

REMARK 2.—The preposition *about* is sometimes followed by an infinitive mood; e. g., "He is about *to go*."

REMARK 3.—*For* is sometimes placed before the infinitive with its subject in the objective; e. g., "This is a dangerous opinion *for* men to entertain."

REMARK 4.—The phrases *in vain*, *in secret*, *at first*, *at last*, *in short*, *on high*, &c., &c., may be parsed together as adverbs, or the noun supplied; e. g., "In a vain manner."

REMARK 5.—*Home*, and nouns signifying *time*, *space*, *measure*, and some others, are put in the objective without a preposition; e. g., "Alfred has gone *home*;" "Robert was absent *three days*;" "William rode *ten miles* after dark;" "My cane is *three feet long*."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Who did you say the boys obtained this unpleasant intelligence from? In that day when the judge of all the earth will

bring every action into requisition, it will be found that every man must account for himself. William went with John and I to the museum last evening. Who did you speak to? Never turn away from, or refuse to assist he that is needy. The teacher was speaking to she, when we entered the room. To who did you lend your knife? James Hampton traveled with you and I last season to Saratoga. It was not he they were so angry with but his brother. Who does he offer such language to? Does that boy know who he speaks to? I hope it is not I he is displeased with. It was not he that told me, but his brother. The young lady you saw with she at the concert took the first honor at the Judson, at the last annual examination. The facts in regard to the transaction was told to he in such a manner as to excite his prejudice against the company. It is distinctly understood that after this, between you and I there is to be no concealment. I am certain that it was said by somebody, but I know not who.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences in which *of* or any other preposition with a noun, shall describe a noun. Write sentences in which *in, at, during, since, about, after, before, between, by, from, to,* and *toward*, with a noun, shall denote the time of an action, or answer the question *When? How long? or How often?* Write sentences in which *aboard, about, above, across, against, along, amidst, among, around, at, before, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, beyond, by, down, from, in, into, on, out, over, round, through, to, toward, under, underneath, up, upon,* with a noun shall denote the *place* of an *action*, or answer to the question *Where?* Write sentences in which *from, for, by, out of,* with a noun shall denote the *cause, source, or origin* of an

act, answering to the question *Why?* *On what account?* or *From what source?* Write sentences in which *with*, *without*, *in*, *on*, *by*, *within*, with a noun shall show the *manner* of an action, or answer the question *How?*

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Tenth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

By what may the preposition be followed?

What is said of the preposition *about*?

What is said of *for*?

What is said of the phrases *in vain*, &c., &c.?

What is said of *home*, &c., &c.?

RULE XI.

§ 325. A noun or pronoun having no grammatical relation to the sentence in which it stands, is put in the nominative independent; e. g., "*Father*, William has come;" "*The sun being arisen*, we departed."

EXPLANATION.—In the examples, "*Father*, William has come;" and "*The sun being arisen*, we departed;"—the word "*father*," and the participial phrase "*the sun being arisen*," are entirely disconnected with the other words of the sentence; —they are in the nominative independent.

CAUTION.—In the use of the participial phrase, this rule may

be violated by using the objective case for the nominative; e. g., "Him only excepted" (*he*).

REMARK 1.—Five cases occur in which a noun or pronoun may be independent or absolute. It may be so:

- (1.) In direct address; e. g., "*Father*, William has come."
- (2.) In participial phrases; e. g., "*The sun being arisen*, we departed."
- (3.) By pleonasm, when it is presented to the attention, and abruptly left; e. g., "Our fathers, where are they?"
- (4.) When, in an abridged proposition, it follows the infinitive or participle of the copula, and is uncontrolled by a preceding noun; e. g., "I was not aware of his being a *judge*;" "To be a *judge* requires a correct knowledge of law."
- (5.) In exclamations; e. g., "O! the times!"

REMARK 2.—In participial phrases the noun is often omitted; e. g., "It is true, generally speaking" (we speaking).

REMARK 3.—Sometimes *being* and *having been* are omitted; e. g., "Her wheel (*being*) at rest;" "This (*being*) said;" "He (*having been*) destroyed."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

Him being discovered, they fled as if the whole army had been pursued. Him that formed the eye can he not see? and him that formed the ear, can he not hear? Oh happy us! who are thus blessed. Us having returned, they rejoiced. "Thee too! Brutus, my son," cried Cæsar overcome. They refusing to comply with so reasonable request, I withdrew without hesitation. Whose gray top shall tremble, him descending. Me being present, the company seemed much embarrassed. Him being detected the assassin escaped. Are you sure of its being she? The class recited well, him excepted. They knew of its being me. Her being dismissed, no difficulty was found

in controlling even the most refractory. I am now sure of its being him. Whom being dead, it was deemed expedient to love. Its being me made a difference in their decision. Me being absent, as might be expected, nothing was done. The general slain, the army was easily routed. He made as wise proverbs as anybody, him excepted.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of the nominative independent by direct address. Five, having the subordinate clause abridged. Five, containing an example of pleonasm. Five, following the infinitive, or participle of the copula.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Eleventh?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

When is the nominative case used without a verb?

What is said of the noun in participial phrases?

What is said of *being*, and *having been*?

RULE XII.

§ 326. The infinitive mood is used to limit a verb, noun, or adjective; e. g., “*Strive* to improve;” “He was in *haste* to retire;” “The boat is *ready* to go.”

EXPLANATION.—The infinitive may be regarded in general as a verbal noun having the construction of both a noun and a

verb. When in immediate dependence on a verb, it is related to it either as its subject or object. After nouns, adjectives, and other parts of speech, it commonly represents the state or action denoted by the verb, as the object, end, or design, of the attribute or fact expressed by the preceding word.

CAUTION.—Be particular not to use the wrong tense; e. g., “I intended *to have written*” (*to write*).

REMARK 1.—The infinitive **may** be the subject of a verb; e. g., “*To play* is pleasant;” “*To study* is profitable.”

REMARK 2.—The infinitive is often used as the object of a verb; e. g., “Boys love *to play*;” “The children seem *to be pleased*.”

REMARK 3.—The infinitive is often used as the predicate nominative after a copulative verb; e. g., “Miss Pamela is *to be married* next week.”

REMARK 4.—The infinitive is sometimes put in apposition with another noun; e. g., “Spare, spare your friends the task, *to read, to nod, to scoff, to condemn*.”

REMARK 5.—The infinitive is sometimes used to complete the relation of a preposition; e. g., “After all Henry is about *to learn*.”

REMARK 6.—The infinitive is sometimes used independently; e. g., “*To confess the truth*, I was in fault.”

REMARK 7.—The infinitive is sometimes used after *so as, too, or than*, to denote a result; e. g., “The difficulty was so great as to deter him from the undertaking;” “James is not too old to learn;” “He is wiser than *to undertake* it.”

REMARK 8.—The sign *to* is omitted after the verbs *bid, dare, need, make, see, hear, feel, let*, and some others; e. g., “I saw him *do* it;” “They let him *go*.”

REMARK 9.—The infinitive may have a subject in the objective; e. g., “They ordered *him* to leave.”

(1.) The infinitive of the copula may have a predicate objective; e. g., “I know him to be a scholar.”

(2.) The infinitive with its subject may be the subject of a proposition ; in such cases the phrase must be introduced by *for* ; e. g., “*For you to deceive is criminal* ;” “*For him to be a scholar is impossible*.”

(3.) The infinitive and its subject may be the object of a transitive verb, or of the preposition *for* ; e. g., “Order my horse to be caught ;” “They considered him (to be) a traitor ;” “They ordered some water *for the boy to drink*.”

REMARK 10.—The infinitive is sometimes omitted ; e. g., “I consider him (to be) an honest man ;” “He was thought (to be) upright.”

REMARK 11.—The infinitive present expresses what is now going on or to come, to the time of its limiting word ; the perfect infinitive expresses what is prior to it ; e. g., “He compels me to *praise* him ;” “He supposed me to *have praised* him.”

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

I felt a chilling sensation to creep over me, as he narrated the many dangers through which he had passed. You will please excuse my son's absence from recitation this morning, as he was much engaged last evening. Bid the boys to come in immediately. Permit Henry pass this way. Let no rash promises be made. It is well to allow others discover your merit. Did you see it to move? A good reader will make himself to be heard distinctly. Alfred dare not return home without permission. I rejoice her the news. William need not conceal himself. We expected to have seen a different result. You ought not walk so fast. Robert is better this morning than I expected to have found him. Rufus need not to run so fast. An industrious pupil seldom fails to know his lesson. Let me die the death of the righteous. I was once inclined to have gone with you ; it is too late now to think of it. Have you heard William to mention it? Instruct him

carefully, observe these things. They wished him to be their king.

It is better to be a king and die than live a prince. He scorns either to temporize, or deceive, or be guilty of evasion. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. Your teacher bid you to go home without delay. You need not to be so serious. Let no man to think too highly of himself. They were seen pass the house late in the evening. Yesterday I hoped to have met you. The books were to have been sold to-day. Was he seen to enter the house? It would have been no difficult matter to have compiled a volume of such amusing precedents. Need they to run so fast? Robert and James would have found it difficult to have accomplished their purpose. Ought we to excuse the remissness of those whose business it should have been to have interposed their good offices? I am of the opinion that we have done no more than was our duty to have done.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of an infinitive used as the subject of a verb. Five, as the object. Five, as predicate nominative. Five, containing an infinitive in apposition with a noun. Five, as the object of relation. Five, used independently. Five, following *so as*, *too*, or *than*. Five, omitting the sign *to* after certain verbs. Five, having a subject in the objective. Five, containing an ellipsis.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Twelfth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What is said of the use of the infinitive in Remark 1?

—— Remark 2? —— Remark 3? —— Remark 4?

—— Remark 5?

How is the infinitive sometimes used?

When the infinitive has a subject before it, in what case must it be?

What is said of the sign *to*?

What does the infinitive present express?

—— perfect?

RULE XIII.

§ 327. Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs; e. g., “James studies *diligently*, and is a *very* attentive pupil.”

EXPLANATION.—“James studies *diligently*, and is a very attentive pupil;”—in this example *diligently* modifies studies, and *very*, attentive. This rule means that when a verb, adjective, or adverb is to be modified, then an adverb must be used.

CAUTION.—Avoid the use of adjectives in place of adverbs; e. g., “James writes *neatly*,” not *neat*.

REMARK 1.—An adverb is sometimes used to modify a preposition; e. g., “Columbus sailed *nearly* around the world.”

REMARK 2.—Adverbs should be placed as near to the words which they modify, as they can be without producing harshness.

NOTE.—Such adverbs as *only*, *merely*, *chiefly*, &c., are frequently misplaced; e. g., “I *only* saw Robert, not Thomas;” “I saw *only* John, but did not speak to him.” The first sentence should be, “I saw *only* Rob-

ert," or, "I saw Robert *only*;" the second should be, "I *only* saw John."

REMARK 3.—An adverb is frequently used to modify a phrase or a sentence; e. g., "The final debate on the resolution was postponed *nearly a month*;" "Verily, verily, I say unto you, they have their reward."

REMARK 4.—*No* never qualifies a verb; hence when there is an ellipsis of the verb, *no* is sometimes used for *not*; e. g., "Will you walk or *no*?" (*not*).

REMARK 5.—The adverbs *where* and *when* are often incorrectly used instead of the relative and its adjuncts; e. g., "The situation *where* (*in which*) I found James was truly dangerous;" "Since *when* (*which time*) I have not seen him."

REMARK 6.—The adverbs *nay*, *no*, *yea*, *yes*, often stand alone as a negative or affirmative answer to a question; e. g., "Will he go?"—"No."="He will not go."

REMARK 7.—Two negatives should not be used to express a negation, because they destroy each other, or are equivalent to an affirmative; e. g., "Nor did Robert and James not deserve punishment." This is equivalent to saying that they did.

REMARK 8.—Two negatives are sometimes elegantly employed to express an affirmation; e. g., "You are not unacquainted with my brother."

REMARK 9.—Conjunctive adverbs usually modify two words, and at the same time join the adverbial clause to the word on which it depends; e. g., "We shall be present *when* the boat arrives" = "We shall be present *at the time at, or in which, the boat arrives.*" Here, *when* modifies *present*, instead of *at the time*, and *arrives* instead of *in which*. It also connects "the boat arrives" with *present*.

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

The boat moves very rapid down the stream. William acted noble, though he was unsuccessful. So well-educated a

boy gives great hopes to his friends. He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke on the subject. You must not let no one disturb me. Your son is like to become a useful member of society. The little girls have behaved very good to-day. He reasoned the point very clear and interesting. Few could be nobler than your brother. Life glides away almost imperceptible and slow. Has your brother been illy a long time? The king acted bolder than the duke. To profess regard and act different discovers a base mind. It is impossible continually to be at work. The class is entire exonerated from blame. She besought him to aid her earnestly. Martha has not done but one sum. Robert don't know nothing about it. Shall we visit Cæsar's Head or no? Matilda plays remarkable well. You need not tell me no such stories. John writes very pretty. James was pleasing not often, because he was vain. Edward rode to town and drove a cow on horseback. Dear me! I can not see to work no more.

I cannot see to write no more. My foot slipped and I pretty near fell down. Our senator spoke very eloquent on the subject before the house. Maria read the book only, but she did not keep it. He is resolved not to do so, neither at present, nor any other time. Wanted, a young man to take charge of some horses of a religious turn of mind. We always should prefer our duty to our pleasure. At that time I wished that any body would hang me a hundred times. In the proper discussion of adverbs, the sound carefully requires to be consulted as well as the sense. Jane reads only English, and not French. Robert will never be no taller. Not only he found her employed, but pleased and tranquil also. The women contributed all their rings and jewels voluntarily, to assist the government. Scholars should be taught to carefully scrutinize the sentiments advanced in all the books they read. I pro-

moting the public good, we only discharge our duty. He drew up a petition, where he represented his own merit. Be so kind as to tell me whether he will do it or no. The pupils seemed to be nearly dressed alike. She writes tolerable well, but reads miserable. Having not known, or having not considered, the measures proposed, he failed of success.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences containing an example of a verb, adjective, or adverb limited by an adverb of time. Five, of place. Five, of manner. Five, of negation.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Thirteenth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

Do adverbs ever modify prepositions?

What is said of such adverbs as *only*, &c.?

What is said of phrases and sentences?

What is said of *no*?

How are *when* and *where* often used?

What is said of the adverbs *nay*, &c.?

What is said of negatives in a negation?

What is said of two negatives in an affirmation?

What is said of conjunctive adverbs?

RULE XIV.

§ 328. Conjunctions connect words and propositions; e. g., “Susan *and* Mary know *that* they have disobeyed.”

EXPLANATION.—“Susan and Mary know that they have disobeyed;”—in this sentence *and* connects the words *Susan* and *Mary*; and *that*, the propositions “*Susan and Mary know*,” and “*they have disobeyed*.”

CAUTION.—Never use *as* for *that*; e. g., “Not *as* I know” (*that*).

REMARK 1.—The conjunction is sometimes omitted; e. g., “Mary thinks (that) her brother will be here soon.”

REMARK 2.—After *than*, *as*, *though*, and *if*, there is often an ellipsis; e. g., “My brother loves money more than (he loves) books.”

REMARK 3.—*As* is frequently used to connect a word with another denoting *character*, *office*, &c., &c.; e. g., “William was employed as a clerk.” The word *clerk*, here, is explained by some as a sort of apposition. Such constructions should be regarded as elliptical; e. g., “William was employed as a clerk” (is employed).

REMARK 4.—After *than* the objective case of the relative pronoun is used, even when any other word would be in the nominative; e. g., “Satan, than *whom*, Beelzebub excepted, none higher sat.”—*Milton*. This is an anomaly, which some explain by supposing that *than* was formerly used as a preposition.

REMARK 5.—Words and clauses are often connected by two conjunctions, or a conjunction and an adverb, corresponding to each other; as,

Neither, — nor; e. g., “Henry is neither idle nor lazy.”

Either, — or; e. g., “Either you or Thomas must go.”

Whether, — or; e. g., “Whether he will go or not,” &c.

Though, — yet; e. g., “Though he was rich, yet for,” &c.

If, — then; e. g., "If he speaks true, then you speak," &c.

Both, — and; e. g., "I am debtor, both to you and your brother."

Not only, — but also; e. g., "Not only his time, but also his character, was at stake."

As, { — as; e. g., "My fame is as good as yours."
 { — so; e. g., "As the stars, so shall thy seed be."

So, { — as; e. g., "He is not so wise as his brother."
 { — that; e. g., "I am so weak that I cannot walk."

REMARK 6.—The common rule, given by grammarians in general, that conjunctions connect verbs of the same mood and tense *only*, is not sanctioned by usage; e. g., "John is diligent, and will improve rapidly;" "I know that he is wrong, and can prove it;" "He *was* skillful in many languages, and *had*, by reading and composition, attained the full mastery of his own."

"Exhausted woe *had* left him nought to fear,
 But *gave* him all to grief."—*Young*.

REMARK 7.—*What* should never be used for *that*; e. g., "I will not believe but *what* he is to blame," should be, "but that he is to blame."

REMARK 8.—After expressions denoting doubt, fear, and denial, *but*, *but that*, or *lest*, is often improperly used instead of *that*; e. g., "I am afraid *lest* he may not return."

REMARK 9.—After the comparative degree, and after *other* and *else*, which partake of the nature of the comparative, *than* is used to introduce the latter term of comparison; e. g., "He is greater *than* I;" "It is no other *than* he;" "What else do you expect *than* this?"

REMARK 10.—*That* often serves merely to introduce a clause, as the subject of the verb; e. g., "*That* mind is not matter, is certain."

EXERCISES FOR CORRECTION.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises.

I am debtor both to you or your brother for many favors during the past season. Either Mary nor her sister shall spend the vacation with you. Provisions are so dear, so as to place

them almost beyond the reach of the poor laborer. He does not know but what you are the man he is looking for. As we witnessed the consecration of so many to the cause of truth, we were led to exclaim, this is no other but the house of God. Your father cannot be persuaded but what you are to blame. Not only his time, yet also his character was at stake. John was employed for a clerk to attend to the business until spring. I do not doubt but that the man was honest in his intentions. He could not be persuaded but what the invention might prove useful, and the investment profitable. The invalid is so weak as he cannot walk. Riches can make no one so happy than a clear conscience. See if the carriage is at the door. It cannot be denied but he has acted honorably.

Did Pamela say as she would join the party to visit the cave? I was surprised to learn that Henry could neither read nor write. Alfred has little more of the scholar besides the name. Neither riches and honors can satisfy the desires of an immortal spirit. There was something so amiable, and yet so piercing in his look, that affected me at once with love and terror. The dog in the manger would not eat the hay himself, nor suffer the ox to eat it. Be ready to succor such persons who need your assistance and sympathy. The matter was no sooner proposed, but he privately withdrew to consider it.

EXERCISES IN COMPOSITION.

Write five sentences in which *who*, *which*, or *that* shall join the dependent clause to the subject. Five, in which *that*, *whether*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *how*, *which*, *what*, introduce the substantive clause used as a subject. Five, in which they are used as the object of a transitive verb. Write sentences introducing the corresponding conjunctions.

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Fourteenth?

Explain it.

Repeat the caution.

What is said of *than*, *as*, *though*, and *if*?

Are conjunctions ever omitted?

With what is *as* frequently connected?

Are such words in apposition?

How should they be regarded?

What is a corresponding conjunction?

What is said of the common rule given by some grammarians in regard to conjunctions?

What is said of *but*, *but that*, or *lest* after expressions of *doubt*, *fear*, and *denial*?

What is said of *than* after the comparative degree, and after *other* and *else* partaking the nature of the comparative?

What is said of *that*?

RULE XV.

§ 329. Exclamations have no grammatical relation to other words; e. g., “*O*, haste my father’s heart to cheer!”

REMARK 1.—No rule can be given for the use of this class of words. Commonly they occur at the beginning of the sentence; e. g., “*O*, that those lips had language!” “Hark! what noise is that?”

REMARK 2.—*O* should be used only before words in direct address, or to express a wish; e. g., “Henry, where is your brother to-day?” “*O*, make my grave where the sunbeams rest.”

Oh should be used when you wish to express pain, sorrow, or surprise; e. g., “Oh! I have alienated my friend.”

REMARK 3.—An ellipsis frequently occurs after exclamations; e. g., “O! a chair” (give me).

REMARK 4.—*Ah* is sometimes placed before the objective case of the pronoun of the first person; e. g., “Ah! me.”

There is no necessity for a special rule for the government of *me* in this case. Supply the ellipsis, and it is easily disposed of;—“Ah! (pity) me.”

QUESTIONS.

What is Rule Fifteenth?

What is observed in regard to this class of words?

What is said of the use of *O*?

What is said of *Oh*?

What is said of *Ah*?

How will you dispose of the objective after it?

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES IN FALSE SYNTAX.

Correct, analyze, and parse the sentences in the following exercises, according to the directions given in the preceding rules.

Though great has been his disobedience and his folly, yet if he sincerely acknowledges his misconduct, he will be forgiven. On these causes depend all the happiness or misery, which exists among men. The property of James, I mean his books and furniture, were wholly destroyed. This prodigy of learning, this scholar, critic, and antiquarian, were entirely destitute of breeding and civility. That writer has given an account of the manner, in which Christianity has formerly been propagated among the heathens. We adore the Divine Being, he who is from eternity to eternity. Thou, Lord, who hath permitted affliction to come upon us, shall deliver us from it in

due time. In this place, there were not only security, but an abundance of provisions. By these attainments are the master honored, and the scholars encouraged. The sea appeared to be more than usually agitated.

Not one in fifty of those who call themselves deists, understand the nature of the religion they reject. Virtue and mutual confidence is the soul of friendship. Where these are wanting, disgust or hatred often follow little differences. Time and chance happeneth to all men; but every person do not consider who govern those powerful causes. The active mind of man never or seldom rests satisfied with their present condition, howsoever prosperous. Habits must be acquired of temperance and of self-denial, that we may be able to resist pleasure, and to endure pain, when either of them interfere with our duty. The error of resting wholly on faith or on works is one of those seductions which most easily misleads men; under the semblance of piety, on the one hand, and of virtue on the other hand. It was no exaggerated tale: for she was really in that sad condition that her friend represented her. An army present a painful sight to a feeling mind.

The enemies who we have most to fear, are those of our own hearts. Thou art the Messiah, the Son of God, who was to come into the world, and hast been so long promised and desired. Thomas disposition is better than his brothers; and he appears to be the happiest man: but some degree of trouble is all mens portion. Though remorse sleep sometimes during prosperity, it will awake surely in adversity. It is an invariable law to our present condition, that every pleasure that are pursued to excess, convert themselves into poison. If a man brings into the solitary retreat of age, a vacant and unimproved mind, where no knowledge dawns, no ideas rise, which within itself has nothing to feed upon, many a heavy and many a

comfortless day he must necessarily pass. I cannot yield to such dishonorable conduct, neither at the present moment of difficulty, nor, I trust, under no circumstance whatever.

Themistocles concealed the enterprises of Pausanias, either thinking it base to betray the secrets trusted to his confidence, or imagined it impossible for such dangerous and ill-concerted schemes to take effect. Pericles gained such an ascendant over the minds of the Athenians, that he might be said to attain a monarchical power in Athens. Christ did applaud the liberality of the poor widow, who he had seen casting her two mites in the treasury. A multiplicity of little kind offices, in persons frequently conversant with each other, is the bands of society and of friendship. To do good to them that hate us, and, on no occasion, to seek revenge, is the duty of a Christian. If a man profess a regard for the duties of religion, and neglect that of morality, that man's religion is vain. Affluence might give us respect in the eyes of the vulgar, but will not recommend us to the wise and good. The polite, accomplished libertine is but miserable amidst all his pleasures; the rude inhabitant of Lapland is happier than him. The cheerful and the gay, when warmed by pleasure and by mirth, lose both sobriety and that self-denial which is essential to the support of virtue.

There were, in the metropolis, much to amuse them, as well as many things to excite disgust. How much is real virtue and merit exposed to suffer the hardships of a stormy life? This is one of the duties which requires peculiar circumspection. More complete happiness than that I have described, seldom falls to the lot of mortals. There are principles in man, which ever have, and ever will incline him to offend. Whence have there arose such a great variety of opinions and tenets in religion? Its stature is less than that of a man; but its

strength and agility much greater. They that honor me, them will I honor. He summons me to attend, and I must summons the others. Then did the officer lay hold of him, and executed him immediately. Who is that person whom I saw you introduce and present him to the duke? I offer observations that a long and chequered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. Every church and sect of people have a set of opinions peculiar to themselves.

May thou as well as me, be meek, patient and forgiving. These men were under high obligation to have adhered to their friend in every situation of life. After I visited Europe, I returned to America. Their example, their influence, their fortune, every talent they possess, dispenses blessings on all around them. When a string of such sentences succeed one another, the effect is disagreeable. I have lately been in Gibraltar, and have seen the commander in-chief. Propriety of pronunciation is the giving to every word the sound which the politest usage of the language appropriates to it. The book is printed very neat, and on a fine wove paper. The fables of the ancients are many of them highly instructive. He resembles one of those solitary animals, that has been forced from its forest, to gratify human curiosity. There is not, nor ought to be, such a thing as constructive treason.

He is a new created knight, and his dignity sits awkward on him. Hatred or revenge are things deserving of censure, wherever they are found to exist. If you please to employ your thoughts on that subject, you would easily conceive our miserable condition. His speech contains one of the grossest and infamousest calumnies which ever was uttered. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. Those two authors have each of them their merit. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. The

not attending to this rule, is the source of a very common error. Calumny and detraction are sparks, which if you do not blow, they will go out of themselves. Clelia is a vain woman, whom if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted. That celebrate work was nearly ten years published, before its importance was at all understood. Ambition is so unsatiable that it will make any sacrifices to attain its objects. A great mass of rocks thrown together by the hand of nature, with wildness and confusion, strike the mind with more grandeur than if they were adjusted to one another with the accuratest symmetry.

He showed a spirit of forgiveness, and a magnanimity, that does honor to human nature. They that honor me, I will honor; and them that despise me shall be lightly esteemed. Having thus began to throw off the restraints of reason, he was soon hurried into deplorable excesses. These arts have enlightened, and will enlighten, every person who shall attentively study them. When we succeed in our plans, its not to be attributed always to ourselves; the aid of others often promote the end and claimour acknowledgment. Their intentions were good; but wanting prudence, they missed the mark for which they aimed. I have not, nor shall not consent to a proposal so unjust. We have subjected ourselves to much expense, that thou may be well educated. This treaty was made at earl Moreton the governor's castle. Be especially careful, that thou givest no offence to the aged or helpless. The business was no sooner opened, but it was cordially acquiesced in.

As to his general conduct, he deserved punishment as much, or more than his companion. He left a son of a singular character, and behaved so ill that he was put in prison. If he does but approve my endeavors, it will be an ample reward. ' beg the favor of your acceptance of a copy of a view of the

manufactories of the West Riding of the county of York. I intended to have written the letter, before he urged me to it; and, therefore, he has not all the merit of it. All the power of ridicule, aided by the desertion of friends, and the diminution of his estate, were not able to shake his principles. In his conduct was treachery, and in his words, faithless professions. Though the measure be mysterious, it is worthy of attention. Be solicitous to aid such deserving persons, who appear to be destitute of friends. Ignorance, or the want of light, produce sensuality, covetousness, and those violent contests with others about trifles, which occasion so much misery and crimes in the world.

He will one day reap the reward of his labor, if he is diligent and attentive. Till that period comes let him be contented and patient. To the resolutions which we have, upon due considerations, once adopted as rules of conduct, let us adhere firmly. He has little more of the great man besides the title. Though he was my superior in knowledge, he would not have thence a right to impose his sentiments. That picture of the emperor's, is a very exact resemblance of him. How happy are the virtuous, who can rest on the protection of the powerful arm, who made the earth and the heavens! Prosperity and adversity may be improved equally; both the one and the other proceeds from the same author. He acted conformable with his instructions, and cannot be censured justly. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. The language of Divine Providence to all human agents is, "Hitherto shalt thou come, and no farther." Idle persons imagine, howsoever deficient they be in point of duty, they consult at least their own satisfaction. Good as the cause is, it is one from which numbers are deserted. The man is prudent which speaks little.

He acted independent of foreign assistance. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. All float on the surface of the river, which is running to a boundless ocean, with a swift current. The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been. Temperance, more than medicines, are the proper means of curing many diseases. They understood the practical part better than him; but he is much better acquainted with the theory than them. When we have once drawn the line, by intelligence and precision, between our duty and sin, the line we ought on no occasion to transgress. All those distinguished by extraordinary talents, have extraordinary duties to perform. No person shall speak stronger on this subject nor behave nobler, than our young advocate for the cause of toleration. His conduct was so provoking, that many will condemn him, and a few will pity him. The peoples happiness is the statesmans honor. We are in a perilous situation. On one side and the other, dangers meet us; and each extreme shall be pernicious to virtue.

Several pictures of the Sardinian king were transmitted to France. When I last saw him he had grown considerably. If we consult the improvement of mind, or the health of body, it is well known exercise is the great instrument of promoting both. If it were them who acted so ungratefully, they are doubly in fault. Whether virtue promotes our interest or no, we must adhere to her dictates. We should be studious to avoid too much indulgence as well as restraint, in our management of children. No human happiness is so complete, as does not contain some imperfection. His father cannot hope for this success, unless his son gives better proofs of genius, or applies himself with indefatigable labor. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the kings prerogative.

The conduct which has been mentioned, is one of those artifices which seduces men most easily, under appearance of benevolence. This is the person who we are so much obliged to, and who we expected to have seen, when the favor was conferred. He is a person of great property, but does not possess the esteem of his neighbors. They were solicitous to ingratiate with those, who it was dishonorable to favor. The great diversity which takes place among men, is not owing to a distinction that nature made in their original powers, as much as to the superior diligence with which some have improved those powers beyond others. While we are unoccupied in what is good, evil is at hand continually. Not a creature is there that moves, nor a vegetable that grows, but what, when minutely examined, furnishes materials of pious admiration.

What can be the reason of the committee having delayed this business? I know not whether Charles was the author, but I understood it to be he. A good and well cultivated mind, is far more preferable than rank or riches. Charity to the poor, when it is governed by knowledge and prudence, there are no persons who will not admit it to be a virtue. His greatest concern, and highest enjoyment, were to be approved in the sight of his Creator. Let us not set our hearts on such a mutable, such an unsatisfying world.

Shall you attain success, without that preparation, and escape dangers without that precaution, which is required of others? When we see bad men to be honored and prosperous in the world, it is some discouragement to virtue. The furniture was all purchased at Wentworth's the joiner's. Every member of the body, every bone, joint, and muscle, lie exposed to many disorders, and the greatest prudence or precaution, or the deepest skill of the physician, are not sufficient to pre-

vent them. It is right said, that though faith justify us, yet works must justify our faith. If an academy is established for the cultivation of our language, let them stop the license of translators, whose idleness and ignorance, if it be suffered to proceed, will reduce us to babble a dialect of French. It is of great consequence that a teacher firmly believes, both the truth and importance of those principles which he inculcates upon others, and that he not only speculatively believes them, but has a lively and serious feeling of them.

It is not the uttering or the hearing certain words that constitute the worship of the Almighty. It is the heart that praises, or prays. If the heart accompany not the words that are spoken, we offer a sacrifice of fools. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. He has traveled much, and passed through many stormy seas and lands. You must be sensible that there is, and can be no other person but me, who could give the information desired. To be patient, resigned and thankful, under afflictions and disappointments, demonstrate genuine piety. Alvarez was a man of corrupt principles, and of detestable conduct; and, what is still worse, gloried in his shame. As soon as the sense of the Supreme Being is lost, so soon the great check is taken off which keep under restraint the passions of men. Mean desires, low pleasures, takes place of the greater and the nobler sentiments which reason and religion inspires.

We should be careful not to follow the example of many persons, to censure the opinions, manners and customs of others, merely because they are foreign to us. Steady application, as well as genius and abilities, are necessary to produce eminence. There is, in that seminary, several students considerably skilled in mathematical knowledge. If providence clothe the grass of the field, and shelters and adorns the flowers

that everywhere grows wild amongst it, will he not clothe and protect his servants and children much more? We are too often hurried with the violence of passion, or with the allurements of pleasure. High hopes, and florid views, is a great enemy to tranquillity. Year after year steal something from us, till the decaying fabric totters of itself, and crumbles at length into dust. I intended to have finished the letter before the bearer called, that he might not have been detained, but I was prevented by company. George is the most learned and accomplished of all the other students, that belong to the seminary. This excellent and well written treatise, with others that might be mentioned, were the foundation of his love of study. There can be no doubt but that the pleasures of the mind excel those of sense.

The grand temple consisted of one great and several smaller edifices. Many would exchange gladly their honors, beauty, and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station which we are now dissatisfied with. Though the scene was a very affecting one, Louis showed a little emotion on the occasion. The climate of England is not so pleasant as those of France, Spain, or Italy. Much of the good and evil that happens to us in this world, are owing to apparently undesigned and fortuitous events: but it is the Supreme Being which secretly directs and regulates all things. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. This task was the easier performed, from the cheerfulness with which he engaged in it. She lamented the unhappy fate of Lucretia, who seemed to her another name for chastity.

He has not yet cast off all the regard for decency, and this is the most can be advanced in his favor. The girls school was better conducted formerly than the boys. The

disappointments he has met with, or the loss of his much-loved friend, has occasioned a total derangement of his mental powers. The concourse of people were so great, that with difficulty we passed through them. All the women, children, and treasure, which remained in the city, fell under the victor's power. They have already made great progress in their studies, and, if attention and diligence continues, will soon fulfil the expectations of their friends. It is amazing his propensity to this vice, against every principle of interest and honor. These kind of vices, though they inhabit the upper circles of life, are not less pernicious than those we meet with amongst the lowest of men.

He acted agreeable to the dictates of prudence, though he were in a situation exceeding delicate. If I had known the distress of my friend, it would be my duty to have relieved him, and it would always have yielded me pleasure to grant him that relief. They admired the countryman's, as they called him candor and uprightness. The new set of curtains did not correspond to the old pair of blinds. The tutor commends him for being more studious than any other pupil of the school. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health. He has greatly blessed me, yes, even I, who, loaded with kindness, hath not been sufficiently grateful. No persons feels the distresses of others so much as them that have experienced distress themselves.

Constantinople was the point in which was concentrated the learning and science of the world. Disgrace not your station, by that grossness of sensuality, that levity of dissipation, or that insolence of rank, which bespeak a little mind. A circle, a square, a triangle, or a hexagon, please the eye by their regularity, as beautiful figures. His conduct was equally un

just as dishonorable. Though, at first, he begun to defend himself, yet when the proofs appeared against him, he dared not any longer to contend. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. The pleasure or pain of one passion differ from those of another. The rise and fall of the tides, in this place, makes a difference of about twelve feet. Five and seven make twelve, and one makes thirteen. He did not know who to suspect. I had intended yesterday to have walked out, but I have been again disappointed. The court of Spain who gave the order, were not aware of the consequence. If the acquisitions he has made, and qualified him to be a useful member of society, should have been misapplied, he will be highly culpable.

There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question, but I have chose to suspend my decision. Was there no bad men in the world, who vex and distress the good, they might appear in the light of harmless innocence, but could have no opportunity for displaying fidelity and magnanimity, patience and fortitude. The most ignorant, and the most savage tribes of men, when they have looked round on the earth, and on the heavens, could not avoid ascribing their origin to some invisible, designing cause, and felt a propensity to adore their Creator. Let us not forget, that something more than gentleness and modesty, something more than complacency of temper and affability of manners, are requisite to form a worthy man, or a true Christian. One of the first and the most common extreme in moral conduct, is placing all virtue in justice, or in generosity.

It is an inflexible regard to principle, which has ever marked the characters of them who distinguished themselves eminently in public life; who patronized the cause of justice against powerful oppressors; in critical times, have supported the fall-

ing rights and liberties of men, and reflected honor on their nation and country. When it is with regard to trifles, that diversity or contrariety of opinions show themselves, it is childish in the last degree, if this becomes the ground of estranged affection. When from such a cause there arise any breach of friendship, human weakness is discovered then in a mortifying light. In matters of serious moment, the sentiments of the best and worthiest might vary from that of their friends, according as their lines of light diverge, or as their temper and habits of thought, presents objects under different points of view. But with candid and liberal minds, unity of affection still will be preserved.

Desires and wishes are the first spring of action. When they become exorbitant, the whole of the character is like to be tainted. If we should suffer our fancies to create to themselves worlds of ideal happiness; if we should feed our imagination with plans of opulence and of splendor; if we should fix to our wishes certain stages of a high advancement, or certain degrees of an uncommon reputation, as the sole station of our felicity; the assured consequence shall be, that we will become unhappy under our present state; that we shall be unfit for acting the part, and for discharging the duties that belong to it; and we shall discompose the peace and order of our minds, and shall foment many hurtful passions.

PUNCTUATION.

§ 330. Punctuation treats of the Points and Marks used in writing.

§ 331. The design of punctuation is to mark the divisions of a sentence to show the meaning

more clearly, and to serve as a guide in the pauses and inflections required in reading.

§ 332. The following are the principal marks used in writing :

The Comma	(,) marks the shortest pause.
The Semicolon	(;) double that of the comma.
The Colon	(:) double the semicolon.
The Period	(.) the longest pause.
The Interrogation Point	(?) denotes a question.
The Exclamation	(!) denotes emotion.
The Dash	(—) a pause of indefinite length.

REMARK.—The duration of these pauses must be left very much to the judgment and taste of the reader.

OBSERVATIONS.

REMARK 1.—The system of punctuation now used in English, in its main features, is common to many languages. It is used in Latin, French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Dutch, German, and perhaps most of the tongues in which books are now written or printed. The Germans use the comma less than we; and the Spaniards usually mark a question, or exclamation doubly, inverting the point at the beginning of the sentence. In Greek the difference is greater: the colon expressed by the upper dot above, is the only point between the comma and period; the note of exclamation is that of our semicolon. In Hebrew, a full stop is denoted by a heavy colon; this is the only pointing adopted when the vowel points and accents are not used.

REMARK 2.—It is not easy to trace the points now in use to their precise origin. From ancient manuscripts and inscriptions it is probable that the period is the oldest of these marks. It is supposed by some that the first system of punctuation consisted in the difference of the position of this point alone. After the adoption of the small letters, about the ninth century, the comma and colon came into use, and also the Greek note of

interrogation. In old books the comma is often found not in the present form, but a straight crook, drawn up and down obliquely between the words. Though the colon is of Greek origin, we owe the practice of writing it with two dots to Latin authors. The semicolon was first used in Italy, and was not adopted in England until about the sixteenth century. Our marks for questions and exclamations were from the same origin, but somewhat earlier. The curves of the parenthesis have been in use several centuries, but the dash is of more recent origin.

REMARK 3.—The colon is used much less frequently than formerly. By some it is rejected entirely.

COMMA.

§ 333. The Comma is used only when a short pause is required; e. g., “*I, that did never weep, now melt in woe;*” “*Strong proof, not a loud voice, produces conviction.*”

RULE I.—The Comma is unnecessary in a short simple sentence; e. g., “*God is love;*” “*Industry is the law of our being;*” “*Hope is necessary in every condition of life.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the sentences in the following exercises, and correct the errors in the use of the comma.

MODEL.—“All finery, is the sign of littleness.”

CORRECTED.—“All finery is the sign of littleness.”

Webster, is not contented with his position. Knowledge, strengthens the mind. God, made the world. The sea, contains many animals. Uncle William, is a merchant. James, obtained his request. The general, ordered the army to march.

Washington, was eminent for his prudence. The horse, runs swiftly. James, has lost my book. Wild animals, inhabit dark caves.

RULE II.—When the logical subject is rendered long by the addition of several adjuncts to the grammatical subject, a comma is usually inserted before the verb; e. g., “*Study and undivided attention to one pursuit*, will give success;” “*To be totally indifferent to praise or censure*, is a real defect in character.”

REMARK.—This rule is much less observed by recent, than former writers.

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—“The necessity of an early acquaintance with history has always been acknowledged.”

PUNCTUATED.—“The necessity of an early acquaintance with history has always been acknowledged.”

The punishment of the reckless disturber of society tends to secure peace. The want of some pursuit to occupy our time is often productive of lasting evil. The intermixture of evil in society seems to exercise the noblest virtues of the soul. A steady and undivided attention to one pursuit commonly gives success. Indifference to the ordinary pursuits of life is indicative of a defective judgment. The voice of reason and mercy prevailed over strong passion and revenge. The belief that God is merciful affords us relief in time of distress and trouble. Propriety of conduct and undivided attention to your profession will make you popular and esteemed. The son and daughter of the emigrant perished in the conflagration. To know God and serve him should form the great end of our

existence. The folly of Martha's conduct and her want of integrity will cause her to lose the esteem of her early acquaintances. To know what to do and how to do it is the thing.

RULE III.—A Comma is generally used between the clauses of a compound sentence; e. g., "*Phocion was poor, though he might have been rich.*"

REMARK.—When the members of a compound sentence are closely connected, the comma is not used; e. g., "*The book which was lost is found.*"

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—"Henry will return when you send for him."

PUNCTUATED.—"Henry will return, when you send for him."

The more highly we cultivate our minds here the better shall we be prepared for the nobler pursuits of the next stage of existence. Grace of manners is so essential to rulers that whenever it is neglected their virtues lose a great degree of lustre. We sometimes forget our faults when we are not reminded of them. Virtue supports in adversity and moderates in prosperity. Your patron though he might have had large possessions was poor and in great want. The principles that had been instilled in his mind in boyhood influenced the whole conduct of his life. Revelation teaches us how we may attain happiness both here and hereafter. Love not sleep lest you come to poverty. Sensuality contaminates the body depresses the understanding deadens the moral feelings and degrades man from his rank in creation. The path of piety and virtue pursued with a firm and constant spirit will lead to honor. James would have gone with you to the fair if you had invited him.

RULE IV.—Two or more words of the same class, whether nouns, adjectives, verbs or adverbs, connected by conjunctions, do not admit of a comma between them; e. g., “*The earth and moon are planets.*”

REMARK 1.—When the conjunction is not expressed, a comma is inserted; e. g., “*Your friend is a plain, honest man.*”

REMARK 2.—If the connected words have adjuncts, a comma may be inserted; e. g., “*Intemperance destroys the vigor of our bodies, and the strength of our minds.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and correct the errors in punctuation.

MODEL.—“Religion expands, and elevates the mind.”

CORRECTED.—“Religion expands and elevates the mind.”

A man of integrity, and honor may be trusted in any position. Matilda was a gentle affectionate girl. The earth, and the moon are planets. Man is fearfully and wonderfully made. A good man will love himself too well to lose and his neighbor too well to win an estate by gaming.

Intemperance destroys the vigor of our bodies and the strength of our minds. Thomas is an intelligent industrious boy. A proper love for our country and a proper love for the human race are consistent with each other. William can read but not write. I spoke of his virtue as a prominent characteristic not his selfishness. Jane is a person studious of change and fond of novelty. Your neighbor is a plain unsophisticated man and has seen but little of the world.

RULE V.—More than two or three words of the same class, connected by a conjunction expressed or understood, take a comma after each; e. g., “*Poetry, music, and painting are fine arts.*”

REMARK 1.—When the words connected are adjectives, the last should not be separated from its noun by a comma; e. g., “*He was a brave, wise, and pious citizen.*”

REMARK 2.—Words used in pairs take a comma after each pair; e. g., “*Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin are the consequences of civil war.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places

MODEL.—“Robert William and Thomas were present.”

PUNCTUATED.—“Robert, William, and Thomas were present.”

Tranquillity regularity and magnanimity possess the hearts of the pious. Truth is fair and artless simple and secure uniform and consistent. Your friend was ruined by self-conceit presumption and obstinacy. We should be modest whether we eat or drink labor or sleep. Matilda Sarah and Mary were at the picnic yesterday.

True worshippers of beauty behold it in the loveliest flower meet it in every path and enjoy it everywhere. Some men sin frequently deliberately and presumptuously. We may find tongues in trees books in running brooks sermons in stones and good in every thing. There is a natural difference between merit and demerit virtue and vice wisdom and folly. Your cousin is a beautiful artless modest girl unaffected and unassuming in her manners. Webster was noble highminded a man of generous impulses.

RULE VI.—The nominative independent with its adjuncts should be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma; e. g., “*Henry, you may return;*” “*The soldiers retreating, victory was lost.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—“The general having been slain the army was lost.”

PUNCTUATED.—“*The general having been slain,* the army was lost.

The wheel at rest motion stops. Shame being lost all virtue is lost. I remain sir your most obedient servant. Time being precious we should diligently improve in whatever we may be engaged. Edward having mastered the difficulty determined to persevere until he could claim the victory. Chilton being a man of great prudence he gained friends on every side. The judge being absent nothing was done. My son give me thy heart.

To say the least both William and Thomas have shown great want of prudence in the whole transaction. Continue my dear children to walk in the path of virtue it is the only safe course. To prevent long and tedious litigation much against my consent I agreed to submit to the terms. Those happy dreams of boyhood whither have they fled! At length his object having been effected he returned. The sun approaching the snow melted. Dick bring the pony from the lot for your young master. Thomas bring me your slate and I will examine that calculation.

RULE VII.—Nouns in apposition are separated by a comma, when the latter noun has several words or adjuncts connected with it; e. g., “*Paul, the apostle to the Gentiles, was eminent for his zeal.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—“Albany the capital of New York is on the Hudson.”

PUNCTUATED.—“Albany, the capital of New York, is on the Hudson.”

Charles the Twelfth king of Sweden was a madman. Pompey contended with Cæsar the greatest general of his times. Herschel a distinguished astronomer of England discovered the planet Uranus. When I was in Montgomery I saw Smith the coachmaker. Truth a gem most precious cannot be overruled. Have you read Milton's great work *Paradise Lost*? Henry recovered a result that was not expected. Okland's Henry's estate is a plantation of great value. Hope the balm of life in time of distress is our greatest comforter. Coleridge a remarkable poet was the friend of Wordsworth. When James was here he spoke of Howard the philanthropist in terms of admiration. Washington the commander of the American forces during the Revolution was born on the banks of the Potomac.

William the Conqueror subdued England. His dog a faithful friend kept silent watch. The river Jordan flows into the Dead Sea. Macaulay the historian is one of the best writers of the present century. Call at my friend Atkinson's the grocer for the package. Brother Edward wrote a letter for the blind boy recommending him to the sympathies of his friends. Delightful task to rear the tender thought. Solomon king of Israel built a temple. James wrote a composition for his brother Thomas. Truth a gem most precious cannot be overruled. James Tolman merchant is a man of the strictest integrity. The faculty promptly acceded to his request an act which reflects great credit on the institution. Time labor money all were lost.

RULE VIII.—A comma is generally placed after an adverb or adverbial phrase used at the commencement of a sentence; e. g., *First, secondly, &c.*

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert the comma where required.

MODEL.—“Lastly strive to preserve a conscience void of offence.”

PUNCTUATED.—“Lastly, strive to preserve a conscience void of offence.”

Indeed it was impossible to convince him by any argument. Finally many confidentially say my mountain stands strong and shall never be moved. Generally it will be found that honesty is the best policy. Indeed you could not convince him by any argument. Secondly I shall proceed to point out what should be the proper state of our temper towards each other. Lastly my dear children I admonish you to make virtue your principal study.

We must not however confound this gentleness with the artificial courtesies of the world. But unfortunately for us the tide was ebbing already. Most unquestionably no fraud was equal to all this. Besides the mind must be employed. Yes both were engaged in the transaction. The fact certainly is much otherwise. However Providence saw fit to cross our designs. For nothing surely can be more inconsistent than his conduct. Besides I know that the eye of the public is upon me.

RULE IX.—A comma is generally introduced where a verb is understood; e. g., “*From law arises security; from security, curiosity.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—“In prosperity he was too much elated—in adversity too despondent.”

PUNCTUATED.—“In prosperity, he was too much elated—in adversity, too despondent.”

Your friend succeeds by flattery—mine by merit. Philosophy makes us wise; Christianity better. Dryden knew more of man in his general nature; Pope in his local manners. The body is mortal—the soul immortal. Ignorance produces vice; and vice misery.

Homer leads us with a commanding impetuosity—Virgil with an attractive majesty. Reading makes a full man; conversation a ready man; and writing an exact man. From law arises security; from security curiosity; from curiosity knowledge. Benevolence is allied to few vices; selfishness to fewer virtues. The possessive is sometimes called the genitive case; and the objective the accusative. The comma represents the shortest pause; the semicolon a pause longer than the comma; and the period longer than the colon. Thomas depends on no one; James on every one.

RULE X.—When a sentence or an infinitive is the subject of a verb, and the verb stands after it, it generally has a comma before it; e. g., “*The most obvious remedy is, to withdraw from company.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert commas in their proper places.

MODEL.—“A desire to improve is commendable.”

PUNCTUATED.—“A desire to improve, is commendable.”

An opportunity was afforded him by the citizens to correct the errors of his youth. The opinion that the republican form of government is the best is no longer problematical. To know and serve God should be the great object of our existence. To treat our enemies kindly is the surest way to make them our friends.

A disposition to excel will stimulate him to a greater exertion. The fact that he was a distinguished speaker was soon apparent to all. A peace that consults the good of the country at large is very desirable at this time. A round of vain and giddy pursuits is pleasing to the young. A desire to improve and to be profited by your conversation has brought me here. The attempt to injure his friend lowered him in the estimation of all his friends.

SEMICOLON.

§ 334. The Semicolon is generally used to divide a compound sentence into two or more parts, not so closely connected as those which are separated by a comma; e. g., "*Straws swim upon the surface ; but pearls lie at the bottom.*"

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert semicolons in their proper places.

MODEL.—"Perform your duty faithfully for this will procure you the blessing of Heaven."

PUNCTUATED.—"Perform your duty faithfully; for this will procure you the blessing of Heaven."

The richest genius like the most fertile soil when uncultivated shoots into the rankest weeds and instead of vines and olives for the use and pleasure of men produces to the slothful owner a most abundant crop of poisons. Martha and Jane are both well dressed in their appearance Martha is the neatest

but Jane the most showy. Every thing grows old every thing passes away every thing disappears.

Philosophers assert that nature is unlimited in her operations that knowledge will always be in progress and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries of which we have not the slightest idea. The passions are the chief destroyers of our peace the storms and tempests of the moral world. Heaven is the region of gentleness and love hell of fierceness and animosity. To give an early preference to honor above gain when they stand in competition to despise every advantage that cannot be attained without dishonest acts to brook no meanness and stoop to no dissimulation are the inclinations of a great mind the presages of future eminence and usefulness in life. That darkness of character where we can see no heart those foldings of art through which no native affection is allowed to penetrate present an object unamiable in every season of life but particularly odious in youth. As there is a worldly sense or view of happiness which God perceives to be no other than disguised misery as there are worldly honors which in his estimation are reproach so there is a worldly wisdom which in his sight is foolishness. Let us deceive ourselves no longer by considering the co-education of the sexes as productive of naught but evil but rather let us consider that they were created to enjoy each other's society and to improve and strengthen each other in every good and great work when placed together under healthful and efficient regulations. The member of a compound sentence on which the other members depend is called the leading clause its subject the leading subject and its verb the leading verb.

COLON.

§ 335. The Colon is used to separate the parts of a sentence which are not so closely connected as to require a semicolon; e. g., “*Study to acquire the habit of thinking : no study is more important.*”

REMARK.—The colon is seldom used by modern writers, except before examples following the expressions, *as follows, the following examples, in these words, &c., &c.*

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert the colon and other points where required.

MODEL.—“Our distinguished friend Colonel Preston next addressed the concourse as follows Gentlemen and ladies &c.”

PUNCTUATED.—“Our distinguished friend, Colonel Preston, next addressed the concourse as follows: Gentlemen and ladies, &c.”

Do not flatter yourself with the hope of perfect happiness there is no such thing in this life. The warrior spoke as follows O man with wine why dost thou thus keep prattling? Accent is of two kinds Primary and Secondary. Avoid evil doers in such society an honest man may become ashamed of himself. See that moth fluttering incessantly around the candle man of pleasure behold thy image! Some things we can and others we cannot do we can walk but we cannot fly.

His last words were as follows Gentlemen of the Jury &c. He often uttered these words I have done with the world and am willing to leave it. A brute arrives at a point of perfection that he can never pass in a few years he has all the endowments he is capable of. Princes have courtiers and merchants

have partners the voluptuous have companions and the wicked have accomplices none but the virtuous can have friends Unless the truth of religion be granted a Christian must be the greatest monster in nature he must at the same time be eminently wise and notoriously foolish a wise man in his practice and a fool in belief his reasoning powers must be deranged by constant delirium while his conduct never swerves from the path of propriety.

The three greatest enemies to tranquillity are vice superstition and idleness vice which disturbs and poisons the mind with bad passions superstition which fills it with imaginary horrors idleness which loads it with tediousness and disgust. Write the following exercises on your slates.

PERIOD.

§ 336. The Period is used to mark the end of a complete sentence; e. g., “*Each day brings intelligence of some new disaster.*”

REMARK.—The period is used after abbreviations; e. g., A. M., LL. D., D. D., Mr. B.

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert periods in their proper places.

MODEL.—“Gen G W Gunn resides in Tuskegee”

PUNCTUATED.—“Gen. G. W. Gunn resides in Tuskegee.”

Alfred wrote a letter to his parents The selfish man languishes in his narrow circle of pleasures Col Harvey is Ed of the Ala Beacon H Smith was elected chairman pro tem We attended the Rev Doct Murray’s church yesterday and heard

an excellent discourse At your earliest convenience examine
Add Spect No 285

The fairest flowers are first to fade Dr T M Peterson has
an extensive practice The oration was delivered by our friend
L Smith M D Wise men commonly measure time by im-
provement The age of the MS S is unknown We can make
ourselves happy without riches The event of which you spoke
occurred B C 3025 The force of a true individual is felt
through every clause the commas and dashes are alive

NOTE OF INTERROGATION.

§ 337. The Note of Interrogation is placed at
the end of a sentence in which a direct question is
asked ; e. g., “ *What is to be done ?* ”

REMARK.—This mark must not be used after indirect questions ; e. g.,
“ *They asked me why I wept.* ” “ Why I wept ” is not a direct question,
and should not take the note of interrogation.

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert interrogation and other points
in their proper places.

MODEL.—“ What excuse can be offered in palliation of his offence to
George ”

PUNCTUATED.—“ What excuse can be offered in palliation of his offence
to George ? ”

How will Jane bear the disappointment By whom was the
victory achieved Who first discovered America To whom is
William superior In what was the man superior How did
Mary read her composition Where is the recitation for to-day
In what manner did brother endure the operation Who wrote

my name on the blackboard I was asked if I had read Milton
Did Willis lose Alfred's pencil Father asked George where he
had been Was Chancellor Mason consulted

When was the city of Moscow taken What officer com-
mands here Which company of soldiers paraded to-day
Mention the principal classes of adverbs Why Henry when
did you arrive How do men become rich Was it possible
that virtue so exalted should be erected upon injustice that the
proudest and most ambitious of mankind should be the great
master and accomplished pattern of humility that a doctrine so
pure as the Gospel should be the work of an unmissioned pre-
tender that so perfect a system of morals should be established
on blasphemy The Cyprians asked me why I wept When
will his ear delight in the sound of arms

“Where where for shelter shall the guilty fly
When consternation turns the good man pale”

Canst thou by searching find out God Canst thou find out
the Almighty to perfection It is high as heaven what canst
thou do deeper than hell what canst thou know If it be asked
why a pause should be any more necessary to emphasis than
accent or why an emphasis alone will not sufficiently distin-
guish the members of sentences from each other without pauses
as accent does words the answer is obvious that we are pre-
acquainted with the sound of words and cannot mistake them
when distinctly pronounced however rapidly but we are not
pre-acquainted with the meaning of sentences which must be
pointed out to us by the reader or speaker—*Sheridan's Rhet.*
Gram.

EXCLAMATION.

§ 338. The Note of Exclamation is used after expressions of sudden emotion or passion, and after solemn invocations and addresses; e. g., “*Hail, holy light! offspring of heaven first-born!*”

REMARK.—When the exclamation *Oh* is used, the point is generally placed immediately after it; but when *O* is employed, the point is placed after one or more of the intervening words; e. g., “*Oh! my offence it smells to heaven.*” “*O, haste my father’s heart to cheer!*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert the exclamation and other points in their proper places.

MODEL.—“Oh how our hearts were beating”

PUNCTUATED.—“Oh! how our hearts were beating!”

Alas it is to be feared that true friendship has taken its departure from earth O feeble boast of transitory power How happy are the righteous Oh let my weakness have an end O make my grave where the sunbeams rest Hush I will not hear you speak thus O fie what are you doing Ha I have caught you now Indeed it is Matilda herself Alas where evil abounds life has no pleasure O Lord how great is thy goodness Welcome my dearest friend Strange what will happen next

Astonishing what do you mean Bravo that was well done Farewell may happiness attend your path Shame would you kill the poor dog Adieu my friend we may meet again Grammatical accuracy what a gem

“And O till earth and seas and heaven decay

Ne’er may that fair creation fade away”—*Dr. Lowth.*

Weep on the rocks of roaring winds O maid of Inistore
 How much better is wisdom than gold At that hour O how
 vain was all sublunary happiness Cease a little while O wind
 stream be thou silent a little while let my voice be heard
 around Alas how few and transitory are the joys which this
 world affords to man Whereupon O king Agrippa I was not
 disobedient to the heavenly vision

“An Author Tis a venerable name
 How few deserve it and what numbers claim”

THE DASH.

§ 339. The Dash is used when a sentence is left unfinished; when there is a sudden turn or an abrupt transition; and where a significant pause is required; e. g., “*Let the government do this—the people will do the rest.*”

EXERCISES.

Write the following exercises, and insert the dash and other points in their proper places.

MODEL.—“I pause for a reply None Then none have I offended I have done no more to Cæsar than you should do to Brutus”

PUNCTUATED.—“I pause for a reply.—None?—Then none have I offended.—I have done no more to Cæsar than you should do to Brutus.”

“‘I must inquire into the affair and if’ ‘And if’ interrupted the farmer.” “Whom I But first ’tis fit the billows to restrain”

“Tarry a little There is something else
 This bond doth give the Jew no jot of blood”

“If I were an American as I am an Englishman while a foreign troop remained in my country I would never lay down my arms never never never” “Do not plunge thyself too far in anger lest thou should hasten thy trial which if the Lord have mercy on thee for a hen”


“The mountain thy pall and thy prison may keep thee
I shall see thee no more but till death I will weep thee.”

PROMISCUOUS EXERCISES.

HUMOR AND ELOQUENCE.—Hook was a Scotchman a man of wealth and suspected of being unfriendly to the American cause During the distress of the American army consequent on the invasion of Cornwallis and Philips in 1781 a commissary of the army had taken two of Hook's steers for the use of the troops The act had not been strictly legal and on the establishment of peace Hook on the advice of Mr Cowan a gentleman of some distinction in the law thought proper to bring an action of trespass against the commissary in the District Court of New London Patrick Henry appeared for the defendant and is said to have disported himself in the cause to the infinite enjoyment of his hearers the unfortunate Hook excepted.

After Mr Henry became animated in the cause says a correspondent he appeared to have complete control over the passions of his audience at one time he excited their indignation against Hook vengeance was visible in every countenance again when he choose to relax and ridicule him the whole audience was in a roar of laughter He painted the distresses of the army exposed almost naked to the rigors of a winter sky and marking the frozen ground on which they trod with the blood of their unshod feet Where was the man he said

that had an American heart in his bosom who would not have thrown open his fields his barns his cellars and the doors of his house and the portals of his breast to receive with open arms the meanest soldier in that little band of famished patriots Where is the man There he stands but whether the heart of an American beats in his bosom you gentlemen are to judge He then carried the jury by the power of his imagination to the plains around York the surrender of which had followed shortly after the act complained of he depicted the surrender in the most glowing and noble colors of eloquence the audience saw before their eyes the humiliation and dejection of the British as they marched out of their trenches they saw the triumph that lighted up every patriot's face heard the shouts of victory and the cry of "Washington and Liberty" as it rung and echoed through the American ranks and was reverberated from the hills and shores of the neighboring river "but hark what notes of discord—are those that disturb the general joy and silence the acclamation of victory they are the notes of John Hook hoarsely bawling through the American camp 'Beef beef beef' "—*Wirt*.

 For additional exercises the pupil may be required to write on the blackboard some portion of any well-pointed book, omitting all the points; and then requiring him to punctuate it, and give the rules for pointing.

OTHER CHARACTERS.

§ 340. The Apostrophe (') is used to denote the omission of one or more letters; e. g., "*O'er hill and dale.*" "*The Southern University is located at Greensboro'.*"

It is also used to denote the possessive case; e. g., "*Robert's book is on the desk.*"

§ 341. A Caret (^) is a mark used to indicate the place where some word or letter has been left out in writing ; e. g.,

will *from*

“ *I hope that you call, on your return Columbia, and stay some time with us.*” ^

§ 342. A Hyphen (-) is a mark used to connect compound words ; e. g., *Horse-man* ; *High-school*.

It is also used at the end of a line to show that one or more syllables of the last word are carried to the next line.

§ 343. The Diæresis (¨) is placed over the latter of two vowels to show that they do not form a diphthong; e. g., *Ærial*; *Orthoëpy*.

§ 344. The Acute Accent (') denotes a short sound ; e. g., *Fán-cy*.

§ 345. The Grave Accent (`) denotes a long sound ; e. g., *Fà-vor*.

REMARK.—The acute accent is often used to denote an accented syllable whether long or short.


§ 346. Short and long syllables are generally denoted by the Breve (◌) and Dash (◌); e. g., *Fölly* ; *rōsy*.

§ 347. The Section (§) marks the small divisions of a book or a chapter.


§ 348. The Paragraph (¶) denotes the beginning of a new subject.

§ 349. The Crotchets (()) or Brackets ([]) generally enclose some explanation, or something which is intended to prevent mistake; e. g., "John told James, that he (*James*) was to study."

§ 350. The Marks of Quotation (“ ”) enclose the words of another; e. g., “ *O, make my grave where the sun-beams rest!* ”

§ 351. The Index () is used to point out any thing

which demands particular attention; e. g., ~~Get~~ “*Get the best.*”

§ 352. The Brace () is used to connect words that have one common term, or three lines of poetry having the same rhyme, called a triplet.

§ 353. An Ellipsis (——) or (* * *) is used when some letters are omitted from a name; e. g., *B——n*, for *Byron*.

§ 354. The Asterisk (*), the Dagger (†), the Double Dagger (‡), and Parallels (||), refer to marginal notes. The letters of the alphabet and numerical figures are often used for the same purpose.

§ 355. The Cedilla (,) is a mark borrowed from the French; it is placed under the letter *c* to give it the sound of *s* before *a* or *o*; e. g., *Alençon*; *façade*.

REMARK.—In Worcester's Dictionary, it is attached to three other letters to denote their soft sounds; viz., *G* as *J*; *S* as *Z*; *H* as *Gz*.

QUESTIONS.

What does Punctuation treat of?

What is the design of points?

What are the principal marks used in writing?

What is said of the duration of the pauses?

What is the general rule for the use of the Comma?

What is said of short sentences?

When is a comma used in a simple sentence?

When in a compound sentence?

What is the rule respecting two words of the same class connected by a conjunction?

When should the comma be inserted?

What is the rule in regard to three or more words of the same class connected by a conjunction?

What should be observed when several adjectives are connected?

What is the rule when words are used in pairs?

What is the rule for the nominative independent?

For nouns in apposition?

For adverbs and adverbial phrases at the commencement of a sentence?

When the verb is understood?

When the subject is a sentence or an infinitive placed after a verb?

When is the Semicolon used?

The Colon? The Period?

Note of Interrogation? Exclamation? Dash?

For what is the Apostrophe used?

The Caret? The Hyphen? The Diæresis?

What is the use of the Acute Accent?

The Grave? The Breve? The Dash?

The Section? The Paragraph?

Crotchets or Brackets?

Marks of Quotation? Index?

Brace? Ellipsis? Dagger? Double Dagger?

Asterisk? Parallels?

What is said of the Cedilla?

Its use?

How used by Worcester?

GRAMMATICAL FIGURES.

§ 356. A Grammatical Figure is some deviation from the ordinary form, or construction, or application of words in a sentence, for the purpose

of greater precision, variety, or elegance of expression.

§ 357. There are three kinds of Figures, viz., of Etymology, of Syntax, and of Rhetoric.

REMARK.—Figures of Etymology and Syntax refer to the form of words, or their construction. Figures of Rhetoric, to their application. Figures when judiciously employed, both strengthen and adorn expression. They occur more frequently in poetry than prose; several of them are merely poetic licence.

FIGURES OF ETYMOLOGY.

§ 358. A Figure of Etymology is some departure from the ordinary or simple form of a word.

REMARK.—Figures in Etymology consist either in a defect, an excess, or a change, in some of the elements of a word.

§ 359. The most important are eight; viz., Aphæresis, Prosthesis, Syncope, Apocope, Paragoge, Diæresis, Synæresis, and Tmesis.

§ 360. Aphæresis cuts off a letter or a syllable from the beginning of a word; e. g., '*Gainst* ; '*gan* ; '*bove* ; for *against* ; *began* ; *above*.

§ 361. Prosthesis adds a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; e. g., *A**down* ; *en**chain* ; for *down* ; *chain*.

§ 362. Syncope removes a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; e. g., *O'er* ; *e'er* ; *lov'd* ; for *over* ; *ever* ; *loved*.

§ 363. Apocope cuts off a letter or syllable from the end of a word; e. g., *Th'* ; *tho'* ; for *the* ; *though*.

§ 364. Paragoge adds a letter or syllable to the end of a word; e. g., *Deary*; *bounden*; for *dear*; *bound*.

§ 365. Diæresis separates two vowels which otherwise might form a diphthong; e. g., *Coördinate*; *zoölogy*.

§ 366. Synæresis contracts two syllables into one; e. g., *Thou'rt*; *'tis*; for *thou art*; *it is*.

§ 367. Tmesis separates a compound word by inserting a word between its parts; e. g., *What time soever*; for *whatsoever*.

EXERCISES.

Point out and describe the different Figures of Etymology in the following examples.

Vain tamp'ring has but fostered his disease. Bend 'gainst the steepy hill thy breast. Th' aërial pencil forms the scene anew. I gladly shunn'd who gladly fled from me.

“The winter's wind,
Which when it bites and blows upon my body
Even 'till I shrink with cold, I smile and say,
This is no flattery.”

“A heart has throb'd beneath that leathern breast
And tears adown that dusky cheek have rolled.”

“The gentle knight, who saw their rueful case,
Let fall adown his silver beard some tears.

“‘Certes,’ quoth he, ‘it is not e'en in grace
T' undo the past and eke your broken years.’”

Thomson.

Enchained he lay a monster. Adown, Carlo, your feet are dirty. What way soe'er we turned danger threatened us with immediate death.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.


§ 368. A Figure of Syntax is some deviation from the ordinary construction of a word, used for the sake of greater force or beauty.

REMARK.—Figures of Syntax consist in a defect, an excess, or a change in some of the elements of a sentence.

§ 369. Of these, the most important are Ellipsis, Pleonasm, Syllepsis, Enallage, and Hyperbaton.


§ 370. Ellipsis is the omission of words necessary to the full construction of a sentence, but not necessary to convey the idea intended; e. g., "*The men, women, and children were all assembled.*"

EXPLANATION.—"The men, women, and children were all assembled;"—in this sentence *the* is omitted before women and children.

 It should be understood that the words omitted by this figure as truly belong to the sentence, grammatically considered, as those which are expressed.

§ 371. Pleonasm is the introduction of superfluous words, to give greater force or emphasis to the expression; e. g., "But of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, thou shalt not eat *of it.*"


EXPLANATION.—"But of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, thou shalt not eat—of it;"—in this sentence the words *of it* are introduced to render the command more emphatic.

 This figure is allowable only when, in animated discourse, it abruptly introduces an emphatic word, or repeats an idea to impress it more strongly; e. g., "*He* that hath ears to hear, let him hear." "All ye inhabitants of the earth, and *dwellers on the earth.*" "I know thee, *who thou art.*"

§ 372. Syllepsis is an inferior species of personification, by which we conceive the idea expressed otherwise than the words

import, and construe them according to the sense conceived; e. g., “While evening draws *her* crimson curtains round.”—*Thomson*.

EXPLANATION.—“While evening draws her crimson curtains round;”—in this sentence *evening* is personified.

 This form of expression is usually connected with some figure of hetic. *hetic*.

§ 373. Enallage is a change of one part of speech for another, or some modification of a word for another; e. g., “They fall successive, and successive rise.”—*Pope*.

EXPLANATION.—“They fall successive, and successive rise;”—in this sentence the adjective *successive* is used for the adverb *successively*.

§ 374. Hyperbaton is the transposition of words; e. g., “*Whom* therefore ye ignorantly worship, *him* declare *I* unto you.”

REMARK.—This figure is often employed in poetry; judiciously used, it produces harmony, variety, strength, and vivacity.

EXERCISES.

Point out and describe the different Figures of Syntax in the following exercises.

Conscience pleads her cause within the breast. So little mercy shows who needs so much. Prythee, Peace. Every moment subtracts from what it adds to our lives. Love your enemies, bless them that curse you, do good to them that hate you. The city of London have expressed their sentiments with freedom and firmness. The word was made flesh and dwelt amongst us, and we beheld his glory.

“An ass will with his long ears fray
The flies that tickle him, away;
But man delights to have his ears
Blown maggots in by flatterers.”—*Butler*.

Now Harry he had long suspected. The paper you sent me is much damaged. Our minds are as different as our faces. He seemed as if deranged. Seven circling planets we beheld.

“The thunder raises his tremendous voice.”—*Thomson*.

“Sure some disaster has befall.”—*Gay*.

“So furious was that onset’s shock
Destruction’s gates at once unlock.”—*Hogg*.

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

§ 375. A Figure of Rhetoric is an intentional deviation from the ordinary application of words. These figures are sometimes called tropes.

§ 376. The principal figures of Rhetoric are fifteen; viz., Metaphor, Simile, Allegory, Personification, Metonymy, Vision, Synecdoche, Irony, Antithesis, Hyperbole, Exclamation, Interrogation, Paralepsis, Apostrophe, Climax.

§ 377. A Metaphor is a figure founded on the resemblance of two objects, the name and properties of the one being ascribed to the other; e. g., “Thy *word* is a *lamp* to my feet.”

EXPLANATION.—“Thy *word* is a *lamp* to my feet;”—in this example, *lamp* is used metaphorically to affirm that the divine word instructs men in the course of conduct to be pursued, just as a lamp directs them in the dark how to choose their footsteps.

§ 378. Simile is a figure founded on the resemblance of two objects, the one being likened to the other; e. g., “He is as *swift* as the *wind*.”

EXPLANATION.—“He is as swift as the wind;”—in this sentence the resemblance between the horse and the wind is in swiftness.

§ 379. Allegory is a series of metaphors continued through an entire narration representing one subject by another analogous to it. The subject represented is not formally announced, but easily discovered on reflection; e. g., “Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room for it, and didst cause it to take deep root; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like goodly cedars.”

EXPLANATION.—“Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt: thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room for it, and didst cause it to take deep root; and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were like goodly cedars.” In this allegory the writer represents the Jewish nation under the figure of a vine.

§ 380. Personification is a figure by which intelligence and personality are ascribed to irrational animals and inanimate things; e. g., “My children, the aged *Goat* replied.”

EXPLANATION.—“My children, the aged *Goat* replied.” Here the goat is represented as a parent counselling his family, and instructing them in regard to their future interests.

§ 381. Metonymy is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause; e. g., “Thomas has read *Milton*.” “*Gray hairs* should be respected.”

EXPLANATION.—“Thomas has read *Milton*;” “*Gray hairs* should be respected;”—in the first example *Milton* is put for *Milton's works*; in the second, *gray hairs*, for *old age*.

§ 382. Vision is a figure by which the speaker represents past events, or objects of his imagination, as actually present to his senses; e. g., “*Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy*.”

EXPLANATION.—“Cæsar leaves Gaul, crosses the Rubicon, and enters Italy;”—here the event of which the writer is speaking, occurred many centuries ago, but, by the use of the figure introduced, is represented as actually present.

§ 383. Hyperbole is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse than reality; e. g., “*I will make thy seed as the dust of the earth; so that if any man can number the dust of the earth, then shall thy seed be numbered also.*”

REMARK.—This figure is peculiarly graceful and pleasant, when we do not accurately perceive the limits of the subject we exaggerate; because we most easily believe a thing is very great, when we do not know exactly how great it is.

§ 384. Irony is a figure by which we mean quite the contrary of what we say; e. g., “They must esteem learning *very much*, when they see its professors used with such little ceremony.”

§ 385. Synecdoche is the putting of a part for the whole or the whole for a part, a definite number for an indefinite, &c., &c.; e. g., “The *roof* (i. e. house) protects you.”

REMARK.—This figure is nearly allied to *metonymy*.

§ 386. Antithesis is the contrast or opposition between two different objects or qualities, that their difference may be rendered more apparent; e. g., “*He can brite, but he cannot seduce; he can buy, but he cannot gain; he can lie, but he cannot deceive.*”

REMARK.—Antithesis possesses all the advantage of Climax, with which different things of the same kind impress the mind when in juxtaposition; and it adds to these the pleasures derivable from unexpected difference and surprise. This figure is mostly employed in the delineation of characters, particularly in biography, history, and satire.

§ 387. Exclamation is a figure that is used to express strong

emotions of the mind ; e. g., “ *O, the depth of the riches, both of the wisdom and the knowledge of God !* ”

§ 388. Interrogation is a figure by which we express the emotion of our mind, and enliven discourse by proposing questions ; e. g., “ *Hath he said it, and will he not do it ?* ” “ *He that planted the ear, shall he not hear ?* ”

§ 389. Paralepsis is a figure by which the speaker pretends to conceal what he is really declaring and strongly enforcing ; e. g., “ *I, Paul, have written it with mine own hand, I will repay it ; albeit, I do not say to thee, how thou owest unto me even thine own self besides.* ”

§ 390. Apostrophe is that figure by which we turn from the subject of discourse to address some other person, dead or absent, or some object, as if that person or object were actually before the speaker ; e. g., “ *O Death, where is thy sting ?* ”

REMARK.—In the use of this figure, care should be observed, not to load it with studied ornament, nor to extend it too far.

§ 391. Climax is a figure of arrangement, in which the sense rises by successive steps, to what is more and more important, or descends to what is more and more minute ; e. g., “ *There is no enjoyment of property without government ; no government without a magistrate ; no magistrate without obedience ; and no obedience where every one acts as he pleases.* ”

REMARK.—A writer or speaker, who, by force of argument, has established his principal point, may sometimes introduce this figure with advantage at the close of his discourse.

EXERCISES.

Point out and describe the different Figures of Rhetoric in the following exercises.

Man ! thou pendulum betwixt a smile and tear.—And the king was much moved, and went up to the chamber over the

gate, and wept; and as he wept, thus said, O my son Absalom! Would God, I had died for thee, O Absalom, my son, my son!—

O liberty! O sound once delightful to every Roman ear! O sacred privilege of Roman citizenship!—once sacred, now trampled upon.

If Cato be censured, severely but justly, for abandoning the cause of liberty, which he would not survive; what shall we say of those, who embrace it faintly, pursue it irresolutely, grow tired of it when they have much to hope, and give it up when they have nothing to fear.—A friend exaggerates; an enemy, his misdeeds.—

As thy days, so shall thy strength be.—They were swifter than eagles, they were stronger than lions.—And it came to pass at noon, that Elijah mocked them, and said, “Cry aloud, for he is a god: either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth and must be awaked.”

Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots? then may ye also do good, that are accustomed to do evil.—My little finger shall be thicker than my father's loins.—Give us this day our daily bread.—

“Man, like the generous vine, supported lives;

The strength he gains, is from the embrace he gives.”—

Pope.

Hast thou an arm like God, or canst thou thunder like him?—The scepter shall not depart from Judah.—No doubt but ye are the people, and wisdom shall die with you.

“I see the dagger crest of Mar!

I see the Moray's silver star

Wave o'er the cloud of Saxon war,

That up the lake comes winding far!”—*Scott.*

“The Worm, aware of his intent,
Harangued him thus, right eloquent.”—*Cowper*.

I saw their chief tall as a rock of ice; his spear, the blasted fir; his shield the rising moon; he sat on the shore, like a cloud of mist on the hill.—Terrestrial happiness is of short continuance; the brightness of the flame is wasting its fuel, the fragrant flower is passing away in its own odor.—Hear me, O Lord! for thy loving kindness is great!—

“Will all great Neptune’s ocean wash this blood
Clean from my hand? No; this my hand will rather
The multitudinous seas incarnadine,
Making the green one red!”—*Shakspeare*.

QUESTIONS.

What is a Grammatical Figure?

How many kinds are there?

What is said of figures of Etymology and Syntax?

—— figures of Rhetoric?

What is a figure of Etymology?

Name the most important.

What is Aphoresis? Prosthesis? Syncope?

Apocope? Paragoge? Diæresis?

Synæresis? Tmesis?

What is a figure of Syntax?

In what do they consist?

Name the most important.

What is Ellipsis? Pleonasm?

Syllepsis? Enallage? Hyperbaton?

What is a figure of Rhetoric?

Name the principal figures.

What is a Metaphor? Simile?
 Allegory? Personification? Metonymy?
 Vision? Synecdoche? Irony? Antithesis?
 Hyperbole? Exclamation? Interrogation?
 Paralepsis? Apostrophe? Climax?

P R O S O D Y .

§ 392. Prosody treats of the Laws of Versification.

REMARK.—In regard to the subjects that may be treated under the name of Prosody, the usage of modern grammarians is so irregular that it cannot be determined how many, or what things ought to be embraced under this head.

§ 393. A Verse is a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged in regular order, and constituting a line of poetry.

§ 394. Rhyme is a similarity of sound between the last syllables of different verses.

§ 395. Blank Verse is the name given to a kind of poetry written without rhyme.

§ 396. Feet are the smaller portions into which a line or verse is divided.

REMARK.—The ancients divided their syllables into long and short, ascertaining their quantity by an exact proportion of time in sounding them. In English, syllables are divided into accented and unaccented.

In the examples which follow, the accented syllables are distinguished by the mark of a long syllable, and the unaccented by the mark of a short syllable.

§ 397. Scanning is dividing a verse into its feet, in order to ascertain whether the number and arrangement of syllables are according to the laws of versification.

§ 398. A line in which a syllable is wanting is called Catalectic; one which is complete, Acatalectic; one which has a redundant syllable, Hypercatalectic.

§ 399. The feet used in English Poetry, are divided into eight kinds; four of two syllables, and four of three.

FEET OF TWO SYLLABLES.

- | | |
|-----------------|---------------------------|
| 1. The Iambus, | ˘ — ; e. g., dĕfĕnded. |
| 2. The Trochee, | — ˘ ; e. g., nōblĕ. |
| 3. The Spondee, | — — ; e. g., vāin mān. |
| 4. The Pyrrhic, | ˘ ˘ ; e. g., ōn ă (hill). |

FEET OF THREE SYLLABLES.

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| 5. The Anapest, | ˘ ˘ — ; e. g., ĭntĕrcĕde. |
| 6. The Dactyl, | — ˘ ˘ ; e. g., vĭrtūoŭs. |
| 7. The Amphibrach, | ˘ — ˘ ; e. g., cōtĕntmĕnt. |
| 8. The Tribrach, | ˘ ˘ ˘ ; e. g., (nu)mĕrăblĕ. |

§ 400. The Iambus has the second syllable accented, and the first unaccented; e. g., *Dĕvōte, crĕāte*.

§ 401. The Trochee has the first syllable accented, and the second unaccented; e. g., *Nōblĕ, hāmlĕt*.

§ 402. The Spondee consists of two accented syllables; e. g., *Pāle mōon*.

§ 403. The Pyrrhic consists of two unaccented syllables; e. g., “*Ōn thĕ* tall tree.”

§ 404. The Anapest has the last syllable accented, and the first two unaccented; e. g., *Ācquiĕsce, mĭsbĕhāve*.

§ 405. The Dactyl has the first syllable accented, and the last two unaccented; e. g., *Lābōrĕr, pōsĭtive*.

§ 406. The Amphibrach has the middle syllable accented, and the first and last unaccented; e. g., *Dōmĕstĭc*.

§ 407. The Tribrach consists of three unaccented syllables ; e. g., *Numērāblē*.

REMARK.—The Pyrrhic, Spondee, and Tribrach occur occasionally. The Amphibrach is the Iambus with an additional short syllable.

§ 408. A verse usually takes its name from the foot which predominates ; e. g., *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, &c., &c.

IAMBIC VERSE.

§ 409. Iambic verses may be divided into several kinds, according to the number of feet or syllables.

§ 410. The shortest form of the English iambic consists of an iambus with an additional short syllable ; e. g.,

Dīsdāin | ĭng.

Cōmplāin | ĭng.

Cōnsēnt | ĭng.

Rēpēnt | ĭng.

REMARK.—We have no poem of this measure, but it may be met with occasionally in stanzas. The iambus with this addition coincides with the amphibrach.

§ 411. The second form of our iambic is too short to be continued through many lines. It consists of two iambuses ; e. g.,

Whăt plāce | ĭs hēre ?

Whăt scēnes | āppēar ?

Tō mē | thē rōse

Nō lōng | ēr glōws.

This style of verse sometimes takes an additional short syllable ; e. g.,

Ūpōn | ā mōun | tăin,

Bēsīde | ā fōun | tăin.

§ 412. The third form consists of three iambuses; e. g.,

Īn plā | cēs fār | ōr nēar,
 Ōr fā | mōus ōr | ōbscūre,
 Whēre whōle | sōme īs | thē āir,
 Ōr whēre | thē mōst | īmpūre.

It sometimes admits of an additional short syllable; e. g.,

Oūr hēarts | nō lōng | ēr lān | gūish.

§ 413. The fourth form is made up of four iambuses; e. g.,

Ānd māy | āt lāst | mŷ weā | rŷ āge
 Fīnd ōut | thē pēace | fūl hēr | mītāge.

§ 414. The fifth form of English iambic consists of five iambuses; e. g.,

Hōw lōved, | hōw vā | lūed ōnce, | āvāils | thēe nōt;
 Tō whōm | rēlā | tēd ōr | bŷ whōm | bēgōt;
 Ā hēap | ōf dūst | ālōne | rēmāins | ōf thēe;
 'T īs āll | thōu ārt, | ānd āll | thē prōud | shāll bē.

REMARK.—This is called Heroic Measure. Its simplest form consists of five iambuses; but, by the admission of other feet, as trochees, dactyls, &c., &c., it is capable of many varieties.

§ 415. The sixth form of our iambic is frequently called the Alexandrine measure. It consists of six iambuses; e. g.,

Fōr thōu | ārt būt | ōf dūst; | bē hūm | blē ānd | bē wīse.

REMARK.—The Alexandrine is sometimes introduced into heroic rhyme, and, when used sparingly and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety.

§ 416. The seventh and last form of our iambic measure, consists of seven iambuses. Anciently it was written in one line, but it is now broken into two; the first containing four feet, and the second three; e. g.,

Whēn āll | thŷ mēr | cĭes, Ō | mŷ Gōd!
 Mŷ rīs | ĭng sōul | sŭrvēys,
 Trānsport | ěd with | thĕ vĭew, | Ĩ'm lōst
 In wōn | dĕr, lōve | ānd prāise.

REMARK.—This form admits of the addition of an unaccented syllable at the end of each odd line.

§ 417. An Elegiac Stanza consists of four heroic verses rhyming alternately ; e. g.,

The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
 The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
 The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
 And leaves the world to darkness and to me.

§ 418. The Spenserian Stanza consists of eight heroic verses, followed by an Alexandrine. The first verse rhymes with the third ; the second with the fourth, fifth and seventh ; and the sixth with the eighth and ninth ; e. g.,

And greedy avarice by him did ride
 Upon a camel laden all with gold ;
 Two iron coffers hung on either side,
 With precious metal full as they might hold ;
 And in his lap a heap of coin he told ;
 For of his wicked pelf his god he made,
 And unto hell himself for money sold ;
 Accursed usury was all his trade ;
 And right and wrong in equal balance weighed.

REMARK.—This stanza takes its name from the poet Spenser. His "Fairie Queen" is written in this measure.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

§ 419. The shortest Trochaic verse in our language consists of one trochee, and a long or accented syllable ; e. g.,

Tūmūlt | cēase,
Sīnk tō | pēace.

REMARK.—This measure is defective in dignity, and can seldom be used on serious occasions.

§ 420. The second English form consists of two feet, and is likewise so brief that it is rarely used for any serious purpose ; e. g.,

Ōn thē | mōuntāin,
Bȳ ā | fōuntāin.

It seldom contains two trochees, with an additional long syllable ; e. g.,

Īn thē | dāys ōf | ōld,
Fāblēs | plāinlȳ | tōld.

§ 421. The third species consists of three trochees ; e. g.,

Whēn ōur | hēarts āre | mōurnīng ;

or of three trochees, with an additional long syllable ; e. g.,

Rēstlēss | mōrtāls | tōil fōr | nāught ;
Bliss īn | vāin frōm | eārth īs | sōught ;
Bliss, ā | nātive | ōf thē | skȳ,
Nēvēr | wāndērs. | Mōrtāls, | trȳ ;
Thēre yōu | cānnōt | sēek īn | vāin ;
Fōr tō | sēek hēr | īs tō | gāin.

§ 422. The fourth trochaic species consists of four trochees, e. g.,

Rōund ūs | rōars thē | tēmpēst | lōudēr.

This form may take an additional long syllable; e. g.,

Īdlē, | āftēr | dīnnēr, | īn hīs | chāir,
Sāt ā | fārmēr, | rūddŷ, | fāt, ānd | fair.

§ 423. The sixth form of the English trochaic consists of six trochees; e. g.,

Ōn ā | mōuntāin, | strētded bē | nēath ā | hōarŷ | willōw,
Lāy ā | shēphērd | swāin, ānd | viēwed thē | rōllīng | billōw.

REMARK.—This is the longest trochaic verse that seems to have been cultivated. By many its length is considered objectionable.

ANAPESTIC VERSE.

§ 424. The shortest Anapestic verse is a single anapest; e. g.,

—Būt īn vāin
Thēy cōmplāin.

REMARK.—This measure is often ambiguous; for in laying an accent on the first as well as the third syllable, we may generally make it a trochaic.

§ 425. The next form of our anapestic verse consists of two anapests; e. g.,

Būt hīs cōur | āge 'gān fāil,
Fōr nō ārts | cōuld āvāil.

§ 426. The third kind consists of three anapests; e. g.,

Ī hāve fōund | ōut ā gīft | fōr mŷ fāir,
Ī hāve fōund | whēre thē wōod- | pīgēons brēed.

REMARK.—This measure is much used in solemn and cheerful subjects.

§ 427. The fourth kind of English anapestic verse consists of four anapests; e. g.,

Máy Ī gōv | ěrn mǔ pās | sions wīth āb | sōlūte swāy,
 Ānd grōw wī | sēr ānd bēt | tēr ās life | wēars āwāy.

DACTYLIC VERSE.

§ 428. The shortest Dactylic verse consists of one dactyl;
 e. g.,

Vērily,
 Merrily.

§ 429. The second form consists of two dactyls; e. g.,

Frée frōm sǎ | tiētǔ,
 Cāre ānd ānx | iētǔ,
 Chārms īn vǎ | riētǔ,
 Fāl tō hīs | *shāre*.

§ 430. The third form consists of three dactyls; e. g.,

Weāring ā | wāy īn hīs | yōuthfūlnēss,
 Lōvelīnēss, | bēautǔ ānd | trūthfūlnēss.

§ 431. The fourth form consists of four dactyls; e. g.,

Bāchēlōr's | Hāl whāt ā | qūare lōōking | plāce īt īs;
 Kāpe mē frōm | sīch āll the | dāys ōf mǔ | life!
 Sūre būt Ī | thīnk whāt ā | būrnīn dīs | grāce īt īs,
 Nēvēr āt | āll tō bē | gēttīng ā | wīfe.

REMARK.—A dactylic verse scarcely ever ends with a dactyl. Sometimes one long syllable is added, sometimes a trochee. Scarcely any poem is perfectly regular in all its feet.

POETIC PAUSES.

§ 432. In addition to the usual pauses required to mark the sense in reading, there are other pauses in poetic composition, necessary to give effect to the movement of the line. These are chiefly the Final pause, and the Cæsural.

EXPLANATION.—The Final pause is necessary at the end of every line of poetry. It consists in the brief suspension of the voice, without change of tone, or pitch. The Cæsural pause is the suspension of the voice, somewhere in the line itself.

NOTE.—It is impossible to give a definite rule for the Cæsural pause. It occurs sometimes in the middle of a line, sometimes in the beginning, and often at the close. It does not occur in very short lines; in long lines, it is generally near the middle.

POETIC ANALYSIS.

§ 433. Poetic Analysis is the process of distinguishing, and naming poetical forms according to certain prescribed rules.

EXERCISES.

Analyze the examples in the following exercises. Tell the feet that compose the several lines, the rhymes, and the number of lines necessary to a stanza.

“ When all thy mercies, O my God !
 My rising soul surveys,
 Transported with the view I'm lost
 In wonder love and praise.”—*Addison*.

“Come back ! come back ! he cried in grief,
Across this stormy water :
And I ’ll forgive your Highland chief,
My daughter, oh my daughter !
’T was vain : the loud winds lashed the shore,
Return, or aid preventing :—
The waters wild went o’er his child,—
And he was left lamenting.”—*Campbell*.

“A wail was heard around the bed, the death-bed of the young,
Amidst her tears, the Funeral Chant a mournful mother sung.
‘Ianthis ! dost thou sleep ?—Thou sleepest !—but this is not
the rest,
The breathing, warm, and rosy calm, I ’ve pillowed on my
breast !’ ”—*Hemans*.

THE SHEPHERD’S HYMN.

“Oh, when I rove the desert waste, and ’neath the hot sun pant,
The Lord shall be my Shepherd then, he will not let me want ;
He ’ll lead me where the pastures are of soft and shady green,
And where the gentle waters rove, the quiet hills between.
And when the savage shall pursue, and in his grasp I sink,
He will prepare the feast for me, and bring the cooling drink,
And save me harmless from his hands, and strengthen me in
toil,
And bless my home and cottage lands, and crown my head
with oil.
With such a Shepherd to protect, to guide and guard me still,
And bless my heart with ev’ry good, and keep from ev’ry ill,
Surely I shall not turn aside, and scorn his kindly care,
But keep the path he points me out, and dwell forever there.”
—*W. Gilmore Sims*.

“If love make me forsworn, how shall I swear to love?
O, never faith could hold, if not to beauty vow'd:
Though to myself forsworn, to thee I'll constant prove;
Those thoughts, to me like oaks, to thee like osiers bow'd.
Study his bias leaves, and makes his book thine eyes,
Where all those pleasures live, that art can comprehend.
If knowledge be the mark, to know thee shall suffice;
Well learned is that tongue that well can thee commend;
All ignorant that soul that sees thee without wonder;
Which is to me some praise, that I thy parts admire:
Thine eye Jove's lightning seems, thy voice his dreadful thunder,
Which (not to anger bent) is music and sweet fire.
Celestial as thou art, O do not love that wrong,
To sing the heaven's praise with such an earthly tongue.”
—*Shakspeare.*

MY FATHER'S GRAVE.

My father's grave, my father's grave
Is a sacred spot to me,
The hallowed influence it imparts
Shall never cease to be.
Far dearer to my heart it seems,
Than when cold death came by,
And touched that manly brow, and said,
He 'neath the earth must lie.

Five summers then had scarcely passed
O'er my young spirit's day,
I did not know how dear the joy
Which death had snatched away;

I did not know that sorrow's hour
Would come with fleeting years,
Add anguish to the orphan's lot
And bitter, bitter tears.

I watched the group of mourning friends,
Who stood around his bed ;
I saw my mother when they said,
That him she loved was dead ;
She freely wept—the narrow stream
Of death he then had passed—
She wept, but oh ! those tears of grief
Were not by far the last.

We laid him gently down to rest
In a grove of cedars green ;
And from the home he loved so well,
His grave could still be seen ;
There oft at eve's most silent hour
My mother would repair,
And humbly " ask of Heaven its aid,
Her heavy lot to bear."

Sacred through life be that spot to me,
Where he quietly doth rest,
And may the brightest flowers of earth
E'er bloom above his breast ;
Above his head may happy birds
E'er sing their sweetest lays,
While gentle zephyrs bear to heaven
Their lovely songs of praise.—*Literary Casket.*

THE TEN COMMANDMENTS VERSIFIED.

“Adore no God besides me, to provoke mine eyes ;
Nor worship me in shapes and forms that men devise ;
With rev’rence use my name, nor turn my words to jest ;
Observe my Sabbath well, nor dare profane my rest
Honor and due obedience to thy parents give ;
Nor spill the guiltless blood, nor let the guilty live ;
Preserve thy body chaste, and flee th’ unlawful bed ;
Nor steal thy neighbor’s gold, his garment, or his bread ;
Forbear to blast his name with falsehood or deceit ;
Nor let thy wishes loose upon his large estate.”

—*Dr. Isaac Watts.*

ANGELS’ WORSHIP.

“No sooner had th’ Almighty ceas’d but all
The multitude of angels with a shout
Loud as from numbers without number, sweet
As from blest voices uttering joy, heav’n rung
With jubilee, and loud hosannas fill’d
Th’ eternal regions : lowly reverent
Tow’rds either throne they bow, and to the ground
With solemn adoration down they cast
Their crowns inwove with amaranth and gold.”

—*Milton.*

THE CHRISTIAN SPIRIT.

“Like him the soul thus, kindled from above,
Spreads wide her arms of universal love ;
And, still enlarg’d as she receives the grace,
Includes creation in her close embrace.

Behold a Christian ! and without the fires
 The founder of that name alone inspires,
 Though all accomplishment, all knowledge meet,
 To make the shining prodigy complete,
 Whoever boasts that name—behold a cheat !”

Cowper.

“ MENE, MENE, TEKEL, UPHARSIN.”

“ The king was on his throne,
 The satraps thronged the hall ;
 A thousand bright lamps shone
 O’er that high festival.
 A thousand cups of gold,
 In Judah deemed divine—
 Jehovah’s vessels, hold
 The godless heathen’s wine.

In that same hour and hall,
 The fingers of a hand
 Came forth against the wall,
 And wrote as if on sand :
 The fingers of a man,—
 A solitary hand
 Along the letters ran,
 And traced them like a wand.”

—LORD BYRON : *Vision of Belshazzar.*

A SCOLDING WIFE.

1.

“ There was a man
 Whose name was Dan,
 Who seldom spoke ;

His partner sweet
He thus did greet,
Without a joke :

2.

My lovely wife,
Thou art the life
Of all my joys ;
Without thee, I
Should surely die
For want of noise.

3.

O, precious one,
Let thy tongue run
In a sweet fret ;
And this will give
A chance to live
A long time yet.

4.

When thou dost scold
So loud and bold,
I 'm kept awake ;
But if thou leave,
It will me grieve,
Till life forsake.

5.

Then said his wife,
I 'll have no strife
With you, sweet Dan ;

As 't is your mind,
I'll let you find
I am your man.

6.

And fret I will,
To keep you still
Enjoying life ;
So you may be
Content with me,
A scolding wife."—*Anonymous.*

"Ye boundless realms of joy,
Exalt your Maker's fame ;
His praise your songs employ
Above the starry frame :
Your voices raise,
Ye Cherubim,
And Seraphim,
To sing his praise.

Thou moon, that rul'st the night,
And sun, that guid'st the day,
Ye glitt'ring stars of light,
To him your homage pay :
His praise declare,
Ye heavens above,
And clouds that move
In liquid air."—*Psalms in meter.*

THE RAVEN.

1.

“Once upon a midnight dreary, while I pondered, weak and weary,
 Over many a quaint and curious volume of forgotten lore,
 While I nodded, nearly napping, suddenly there came a tapping,
 As of some one gently rapping, rapping at my chamber door.
 ‘T is some visitor,’ I muttered, ‘tapping at my chamber door—
 Only this, and nothing more.’

2.

Ah! distinctly I remember it was in the bleak December,
 And each separate dying ember wrought its ghost upon the floor;
 Eagerly I wished the morrow;—vainly had I tried to borrow
 From my books surcease of sorrow—sorrow for the lost Lenore—
 For the rare and radiant maiden, whom the angels name Lenore—
 Nameless here for evermore.”—*E. A. Poe.*

“Wanderer, whither wouldst thou roam?

To what region far away,
 Bend thy steps to find a home,
 In the twilight of thy day?

‘In the twilight of my day,
 I am hastening to the west;
 There my weary limbs to lay,
 Where the sun retires to rest.

Far beyond the Atlantic floods,
 Stretched beneath the evening sky,
Realms of mountains dark with woods,
 In Columbia's bosom lie.

There, in glens and caverns rude,
 Silent since the world began,
Dwells the virgin Solitude,
 Unbetrayed by faithless man :

Where a tyrant never trod,
 Where a slave was never known,
But where nature worships God
 In the wilderness alone.

Thither, thither would I roam ;
 There my children may be free :
I for them will find a home ;
 They shall find a grave for me.' "

—*Montgomery*

LINGERING COURTSHIP.

1.

" Never wedding, ever wooing,
Still a lovelorn heart pursuing,
Read you not the wrong you 're doing,
 In my cheek's pale hue ?
All my life with sorrow strewing,
 Wed, or cease to woo.

2.

Rivals banish'd, bosoms plighted,
Still our days are disunited ;

Now the lamp of hope is lighted,
 Now half quench'd appears,
 Damp'd, and wavering, and benighted,
 Midst my sighs and tears.

3.

Charms you call your dearest blessing,
 Lips that thrill at your caressing,
 Eyes a mutual soul confessing,
 Soon you'll make them grow
 Dim, and worthless your possessing,
 Not with age, but woe!"—*Campbell.*

YOUTH AND AGE CONTRASTED.

"Crabbed age and youth
 Can not live together ;
 Youth is full of pleasure,
 Age is full of care :
 Youth, like summer morn,
 Age, like winter weather ;
 Youth, like summer, brave ;
 Age, like winter, bare.
 Youth is full of sport,
 Age's breath is short ;
 Youth is nimble, age is lame ;
 Youth is hot and bold,
 Age is weak and cold ;
 Youth is wild, and age is tame."

—*Singer's Shakspeare*, Vol. ii. p. 594.

A GOOD NAME.

1.

“Children, choose it,
 Don't refuse it,
 'Tis a precious diadem;
 Highly prize it,
 Don't despise it,
 You will need it when you're men.

2.

Love and cherish,
 Keep and nourish,
 'Tis more precious far than gold;
 Watch and guard it,
 Don't discard it,
 You will need it when you're old.”

—*The Family Christian Almanac*

“From walk to walk, from shade to shade,
 From stream to purling stream convey'd,
 Through all the mazes of the grove,
 Through all the mingling tracks I rove,
 Turning,
 Burning,
 Changing,
 Ranging,
 Full of grief and full of love.”

—ADDISON'S *Rosamond*, Act I., Sc. 4

THE ROSE.

“The rose had been wash’d, just wash’d in a show’r,
Which Mary to Anna convey’d ;
The plentiful moisture encumber’d the flow’r,
And weigh’d down its beautiful head.

The cup was all fill’d, and the leaves were all wet,
And it seem’d to a fanciful view,
To weep for the buds it had left, with regret,
On the flourishing bush where it grew.

I hastily seized it, unfit as it was
For a nosegay, so dripping and drown’d,
And, swinging it rudely, too rudely, alas !
I snapp’d it,—it fell to the ground.

And such, I exclaim’d, is the pitiless part
Some act by the delicate mind,
Regardless of wringing and breaking a heart
Already to sorrow resign’d.

This elegant rose, had I shaken it less,
Might have bloom’d with its owner awhile ;
And the tear that is wip’d with a little address,
May be follow’d perhaps by a smile.”

—COWPER : *Poems*, Vol. i., p. 216.

“CORONACH,” OR FUNERAL SONG.

1.

“He is gone on the mountain
He is lost to the forest
Like a summer-dried fountain
When our need was the sorest.

The font, reappearing,
 From the rain-drops shall borrow,
 But to us comes no cheering,
 To Duncan no morrow!

2.

The hand of the reaper
 Takes the ears that are hoary,
 But the voice of the weeper
 Wails manhood in glory;
 The autumn winds rushing,
 Waft the leaves that are searest,
 But our flow'r was in flushing,
 When blighting was nearest."

—WALTER SCOTT: *Lady of the Lake*, Canto iii., St. 16

TO THE KATYDID.

"Katydid, katydid, sweetly sing,—
 Sing to thy loving mates near to thee;
 Summer is come, and the trees are green,—
 Summer's glad season so dear to thee.
 Cheerily, cheerily, insect, sing;
 Blithe be thy notes in the hickory:
 Every bough shall an answer ring,
 Sweeter than trumpet of victory."

"Hail to the chief who in triumph advances!
 Honor'd and bless'd be the ever-green pine!
 Long may the tree in his banner that glances,
 Flourish, the shelter and grace of our line!

Heaven send it happy dew,
 Earth lend it sap anew,
 Gayly to bourgeon, and broadly to grow,
 While ev'ry Highland glen
 Sends our shout back agen,
 'Roderigh Vich Alpine Dhu, ho! ieroe!'"

WALTER SCOTT: *Lady of the Lake*, C. ii., St. 19.

“LOCHIEL'S WARNING.”

“’Tis the sunset of life gives me mystical lore,
 And coming events cast their shadows before.
 I tell thee, Culloden's dread echoes shall ring
 With the bloodhounds that bark for thy fugitive king.
 Lo! anointed by Heaven with the vials of wrath,
 Behold, where he flies on his desolate path!
 Now, in darkness and billows he sweeps from my sight:
 Rise! rise! ye wild tempests, and cover his flight!
 ’Tis finished. Their thunders are hushed on the moors:
 Culloden is lost, and my country deplores.”—CAMPBELL.

THE SOLDIER'S WIFE.

“Weary way-wanderer, languid and sick at heart,
 Traveling painfully over the rugged road,
 Wild-visaged wanderer! God help thee, wretched one!
 Sorely thy little one drags by thee barefooted;
 Cold is the baby that hangs at thy bending back,
 Meager, and livid, and screaming for misery.”

THE DRUM.

I hate that drum's discordant sound
Parading round and round and round ;
To thoughtless youth it pleasure yields,
Allures from cities and from fields,
To sell their liberty for charms
Of tawdry lace and glittering arms ;
And when ambition's voice commands,
To march, and fight, and fall in foreign lands.

I hate the drum's discordant sound,
Parading round and round and round,
To me it talks of ravag'd plains,
And burning towns, and ruined swains,
And mangled limbs and dying groans,
And widows' tears, and orphans' moans,
And all that misery's hand bestows,
To fill the catalogue of human woes.

—*From Scott of Amwell.*

APPENDIX NO. I.

GLOSSARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS.

- ACCENT**, [Lat. *accentus* from *accino*, *accentum*, *ad* and *cano*, to sing to,] stress of voice laid on a particular syllable.
- ACCIDENT**, [Lat. *accido*, to fall to, to happen, *ad* and *cado*,] something that falls to, i. e. belongs to a word, but not essential to it; as person, gender, number, case, comparison, mood, tense, &c.
- ACTIVE**, [Lat. *activus*, active from *ago*, to act,] denotes a form of the verb, the subject of which acts, or is active. In many grammars, a class of verbs which express action.
- ADJECTIVE** [Lat. *adjectus*, added, joined to, from *adjicio*, i. e. *ad*, to, and *jacio*, to lay, put, &c.] the designation of a class of words. See definition, § 75.
- ADVERB**, [Latin from *ad*, to, and *verbum*, a word, the verb, i. e. added or joined to a verb,] a class of words. § 77.
- ALLEGORY**, [Gr. *ἀλληγορία*, from *ἀλληγορέω*, to interpret differently from what the words seem to imply, from *ἄλλος*, and *ἀγορέω*, to speak in public. Th. *ἀγορά*, a forum or public place,] a figure of speech. § 379.
- ANTITHESIS**, [Gr. *ἀντίθεσις*, opposition, contrast, from *αντι*, opposite, and *τίθημι*, to place; hence to place opposite or in contrast,] a figure of speech. § 386.
- APOSTROPHE**, [Gr. *ἀποστροφή*, turning away, viz: from the subject of discourse to another object, *ἀπό*, from, and *στρέφω*, to turn,] a figure of speech. § 390.
- APPOSITION**, [Lat. *appositus*, placed near or together,] a noun placed near, or by another, in the same construction, for the purpose of further defining it, is said to be in *apposition*; as "Cicero, the Orator." § 318.
- AUXILIARY**, [Lat. *auxiliaris*, helping, from *auxilium*, aid,] a designation of certain verbs. § 189.
- CASE**, [Lat. *casus*, from *cado*,—*casum*, to fall;] hence the particular circumstances into which a person or thing falls, or happens to be, is

called his, or its case. So a noun in certain circumstances, is in one case, in different circumstances it is in another case. § 125.

CLIMAX, [Gr. κλίμαξ, a scale or ladder,] a figure in rhetoric, by which the sense of the expression rises gradually in strength, from step to step. § 391.

COLON, [Gr. κῶλον, a member or limb; hence in grammar, a member or part of a sentence,] a mark (:) by which a member of a sentence is indicated. § 335.

COMMA, [Gr. κόμμα, a segment, from κόπτω, to cut off,] a mark (,) indicating the smallest segment or division of a sentence. § 333.

COMPARATIVE, [Lat. from *comparo*, to compare,] a form of the adjective, expressing a greater or less degree than the positive. § 224.

CONCORD, [Lat. *concoro*, agreeing; *concordia*, agreement,] a term in syntax denoting the agreement of words in certain accidents. § 310.

CONJUGATION, [Lat. *conjugatio*, from *con*, together, and *jugo*, to yoke or join,] arranging and joining the different parts of a verb together in their proper order. § 178.

CONJUNCTION, [Lat. *conjunctio*, from *con*, together, and *jungo*, to join,] a word whose use is to join together. § 257.

CONSONANT, [Lat. *consonans*, sounding together, *con* and *sono*,] a letter sounded not alone, but together with a vowel. § 25.

COPULA, [Lat. *copula*, a band or tie,] that by which the subject and predicate of a proposition are coupled together; sometimes a separate word, as *am*, *is*, *are*, &c., and sometimes implied in the predicate itself, as I write, i. e. I *am* writing. § 285.

DECLENSION, [Lat. *declinatio*, from *declino*, to decline,] declining or changing the termination of nouns, &c., so as to form the oblique cases. § 137.

DECLINABLE, [Lat. from the same,] that may be declined or changed in termination.

DIERESIS, [Gr. διαίρεσις, a division, *διά* and *αἰρέω*,] a mark (·) over the last of two vowels, showing that they are to be divided in pronunciation, as *aërial*, *a-erial*. § 365.

DIPHTHONG, [Gr. δίφθογγος, a double sound, from *δίς*, twice, and *φθογγος*, a sound,] the union of two vowel sounds in one syllable. § 33.

DISSYLLABLE, [Gr. δισσυλλαβή, *δίς*, twice, and *συλλαβή*,] a word of two syllables. § 46.

ELLIPSIS [Gr. ἔλλειψις, omission, leaving out, εἰ, and λείπω, to leave,] a figure by which a word or words are omitted, which belong to the full grammatical construction of a sentence. See def. § 370.

ETYMOLOGY, [Gr. ἔτυμολογία, from ἔτυμολογέω, to derive a word from its original, and thus to discover its true meaning—ἔτυμον, true, and λέγω, to tell,] the derivation of words. Also, that part or division in grammar, which treats of the different classes of words, and their various modifications. § 64.

FEMININE, [Lat. *femininus*, from *femina*, a woman,] the name of the gender of words denoting females. § 95.

FUTURE, [Lat. *futurus*, about to be,] the name of a tense denoting time yet to come.

GENDER, [Lat. *genus*, Fr. *genre*, kind, or class.] § 92.

GRAMMAR, [Gr. γραμματική, from γράμμα, a letter, a writing, and that from γράφω, to write. Fr. *grammaire*,] the science of language. § 1.

HYPERBOLE, [Gr. ὑπερβολή, throwing over or beyond, hence excess, exaggeration, ὑπέρ, over, and βάλλω, to throw,] a figure of speech, defined § 383.

IMPERFECT, [Lat. *imperfectum*, not completed,] a tense properly denoting an act, &c., completed at a certain past time. § 165.

INDICATIVE, [Lat. *indico*,—*are*, to declare,] a mood or form of the verb which simply declares. § 153.

INFINITIVE, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *finitus*, limited or bounded,] a mood of the verb not limited by person or number. § 157.

INTERJECTION, [Lat. *interjectio*, from *inter*, between, or among, and *jacio*, to throw,] a word or phrase having no grammatical connection with a sentence, but as it were thrown into it to express some sudden emotion of the mind. § 80.

INTRANSITIVE, [Lat. *in*, negative, and *transitivus*,] not passing over. § 141.

IRONY, [Gr. εἰρωνεία, from εἰρων, a dissembler,] a figure of speech. § 384.

MASCULINE, [Lat. from *mas*, a male,] the gender of nouns and pronouns which designate males. § 94.

METAPHOR, [Gr. μεταφορά, from μεταφέρω, to transfer,] a word expressing similitude without the signs of comparison, by which the property of one object is, as it were, transferred to another; thus when we say, "that man is a fox," the meaning is, "that man is like a fox;" the figure *transfers* the leading property of the *fox* to the *man*. § 377.

METONYMY, [Gr. *μετωνυμία*, a change of name; from *μετά*, denoting change, and *ὄνομα*,] a name, a figure by which one word is put for another. See def. § 381.

METRE, [Gr. from *μέτρον*, a measure,] a composition, the lines of which contain a certain *measure* of long and short syllables, arranged according to rule.

MONOSYLLABLE, [Gr. from *μόνος*, only, or one, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of one syllable. § 45.

MOOD or MODE, [Lat. *modus*, manner,] a form of the verb expressing its meaning in a certain *manner*. § 151.

NEUTER, [Lat. *neuter*, neither,] an epithet given to nouns which are neither masculine nor feminine. Also, in some grammars, to verbs denoting being, or a state of being.

NOMINATIVE (case), [Lat. *nominativus*, from *nomino*, to name,] the first case of a noun or pronoun, or that used when a person or thing is simply *named*.

NOUN, [Lat. *nomen*, a name;] a word that is the name of an object, is in grammar called a *Noun*. § 73.

OBJECTIVE (case), [Lat. *objectivus*, from *ob* and *jacio*, to throw to, against, or in the way of,] the case of a noun or pronoun which denotes the object of a transitive verb, or preposition. § 136.

ORTHOGRAPHY, [Gr. *ὀρθογραφία*, from *ὀρθός*, right, and *γραφή*, writing,] writing words correctly, i. e. with the proper letters. § 8.

PARALEPSIS, [Gr. *παρὰλειψις*, omission, from *παρά*, and *λείπω*, to leave,] figure of speech. § 389.

PARENTHESIS, [Gr. *παρένθεσις*, from *παρά* and *ἐντίθημι*, to insert,] a word, phrase, or sentence *inserted* in a sentence for explanation, but not connected with it in construction, and, therefore, usually distinguished by a mark at the beginning and end, thus ().

PARSE, [Derivation uncertain,] to resolve a sentence into its elements, or *parts* of speech.

PARTICIPLE, [Lat. *participium*, from *pars*, a part, and *capio*, to take,] a part of the verb which partakes of the verb and the adjective, having its signification and time from the former, and declension and construction from the latter. § 169.

PASSIVE (voice), [Lat. *passivus*, from *patior*, to suffer, or to be affected in any way,] a form of the verb which indicates that its subject or nomi-

native receives, or is affected by the action expressed by the verb.
§ 150.

PERFECT, [Lat. *perfectum*, from *perficio*, to perfect or complete,] a tense of the verb, denoting that the action or state expressed by it is now completed. § 164.

PERIOD [Gr. *περίοδος*, a circuit, from *περί*, round, and *ὁδός*, a way,] a complete sentence, one which has its construction completed, or *brought round*.

PERSONIFICATION, [Lat. from *persona*, a person, and *facio*, to make,] a figure, by which inanimate objects are regarded as persons, or, as it were, *made so*. § 380.

PLUPERFECT, [Lat. *plus quam perfectum*, more than perfected or completed, i. e. completed before a certain time now past,] the designation of a tense defined § 166.

POLYSYLLABLE, [Gr. from *πολύς* many, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of many syllables. See Syllable.

POTENTIAL, [Lat. *potentialis*, belonging to power or ability, from *potens*, able,] the designation of a certain mood of the verb, defined § 155.

PREDICATE, [Lat. *prædicatus*, from *prædico*, to assert or declare,] that part of a proposition which contains what is affirmed or asserted of its subject. § 285.

PREPOSITION, [Lat. *præpositio*, from *præpositus*, placed before,] a class of words so called, because their *position* in a sentence is *before* the word governed by them. § 78.

PRONOUN, [Lat. *pronomen*, from *pro*, for, i. e. instead of, and *nomen*, a name or noun,] a word used for, or instead of a noun. § 76.

PROPOSITION, [Lat. *propositio*, from *pro*, before, and *positus*, placed,] a simple sentence, in which a distinct idea is *proposed*, or set before the mind. § 269.

PROSODY, [Gr. *προσωδία*, from *πρός*, with or belonging to, and *ὥδή*, an ode,] anciently the doctrine of accents and quantity, &c. § 392.

PROSOPOPEIA, [Gr. *προσωποποιία*, from *πρόσωπον*, a person, and *ποιέω*, to make,] the Greek term for Personification.

SEMICOLON, [Lat. *semi*, half, and Gr. *colon*,] a point (;), denoting a division of a sentence less than a colon.

SIMILE, [Lat. *simile*, like,] a figure of speech, by which one thing is compared or *likened* to another. § 378.

SOLECISM, [Gr. *σολοικισμός*, supposed to be derived from *Solii*, the name of a people in Cilicia, who spoke the Greek language very ungrammatically,] a gross violation of the idiom, or syntax of a language.

SUBJECT, [Lat. *subjectus*, from *subjicio*, to place before or under, (the view,)] in a proposition, the person or thing spoken of.

SUBJUNCTIVE (mood,) [Lat. *subjunctivus*, from *subjungo*, to subjoin or annex to,] a mood of the verb never used independently, and by itself, but *subjoined* or annexed to the main or leading verb in a sentence. § 154.

SUBSTANTIVE, [Lat. *substantivus*, from *substantia*, substance,] the same as noun, viz. a class of words denoting things that have *substance*, or existence, material or immaterial.

SUPERLATIVE, [Lat. *superlativus*, from *super*, above, and *latus*, carried, i. e. carried above, viz. other things,] a form of the adjective expressing a degree of the quality *carried above*, or superior to that in any of several objects compared.

SYLLABLE, [Gr. *συλλαβή*, from *σύν*, together, and *λαμβάνω*, to take,] a letter or number of letters *taken together*, and forming one vocal sound.

SYNECDOCHE, [Gr. *συνεκδοχή*, from *σύν*, and *ἐκδέχομαι*, to take,] a figure of speech, defined § 385.

SYNTAX, [Gr. *σύνταξις*, from *σύν*, together, and *τάσσω*, to put in order,] the proper arrangement or *putting together* of words in a sentence. § 268.

TENSE, [Lat. *tempus*, time, Fr. *temps*,] a form of the verb by which the time of an act, &c., is indicated. § 158.

TRANSITIVE, [Lat. *transitivus*, from *transeo*, to go or pass over,] the name of a class of verbs, which express an act that *passes over* from an agent to an object.

TRIPHTHONG, [Gr. from *τρεῖς*, three, and *φθόγγος*, a sound,] the union of three vowels in one sound.

TRISSYLLABLE, [Gr. *τρεῖς*, three, and *συλλαβή*, a syllable,] a word of three syllables.

VERB, [Lat. *verbum*, a word,] the name of a class of words which, being the chief or most important in a sentence, were called *verbum*, the word, viz. by way of eminence. § 138.

VERSE, [Lat. *versus*, from *verto*, to turn,] a species of composition in which every line is measured, so as to contain a certain number of feet, at the end of which the writer *turns* to a new line.

VOWEL, [Lat. *vocalis*, from *vox*, the voice,] a letter which marks a distinct and independent sound, without the aid of other letters.

APPENDIX NO. II.

ABBREVIATIONS.

The following are the most common :

A. C.	Before Christ.	Ante Christum.
A. B.	Bachelor of Arts.	Artium Baccalaureus.
A. D.	In the year of our Lord.	Anno Domini.
A. M.	{ Master of Arts.	Artium Magister.
	{ In the year of the world.	Anno Mundi,
	{ In the forenoon.	Ante Meridiem.
B. D.	Bachelor of Divinity.	Bac. Divinitatis.
D. D.	Doctor of Divinity.	Doctor Divinitatis.
e. g.	For example.	Exempli gratia.
i. e.	That is.	Id est.
LL.D.	Doctor of Laws.	Legum Doctor.
L. S.	Place of the seal.	Locus Sigilli.
Messrs.	Gentlemen.	Messieurs.
M. D.	Doctor of Medicine.	Medicinæ Doctor.
MS.	Manuscript.	Scriptum Manus.
N. B.	Take notice.	Nota Bene.
P. M.	{ Afternoon.	Post Meridiem.
	{ Post Master.	
P. S.	Postscript.	Post Scriptum.
S. T. D.	Doctor of Theology.	Sanctæ Theologiæ Doctor.

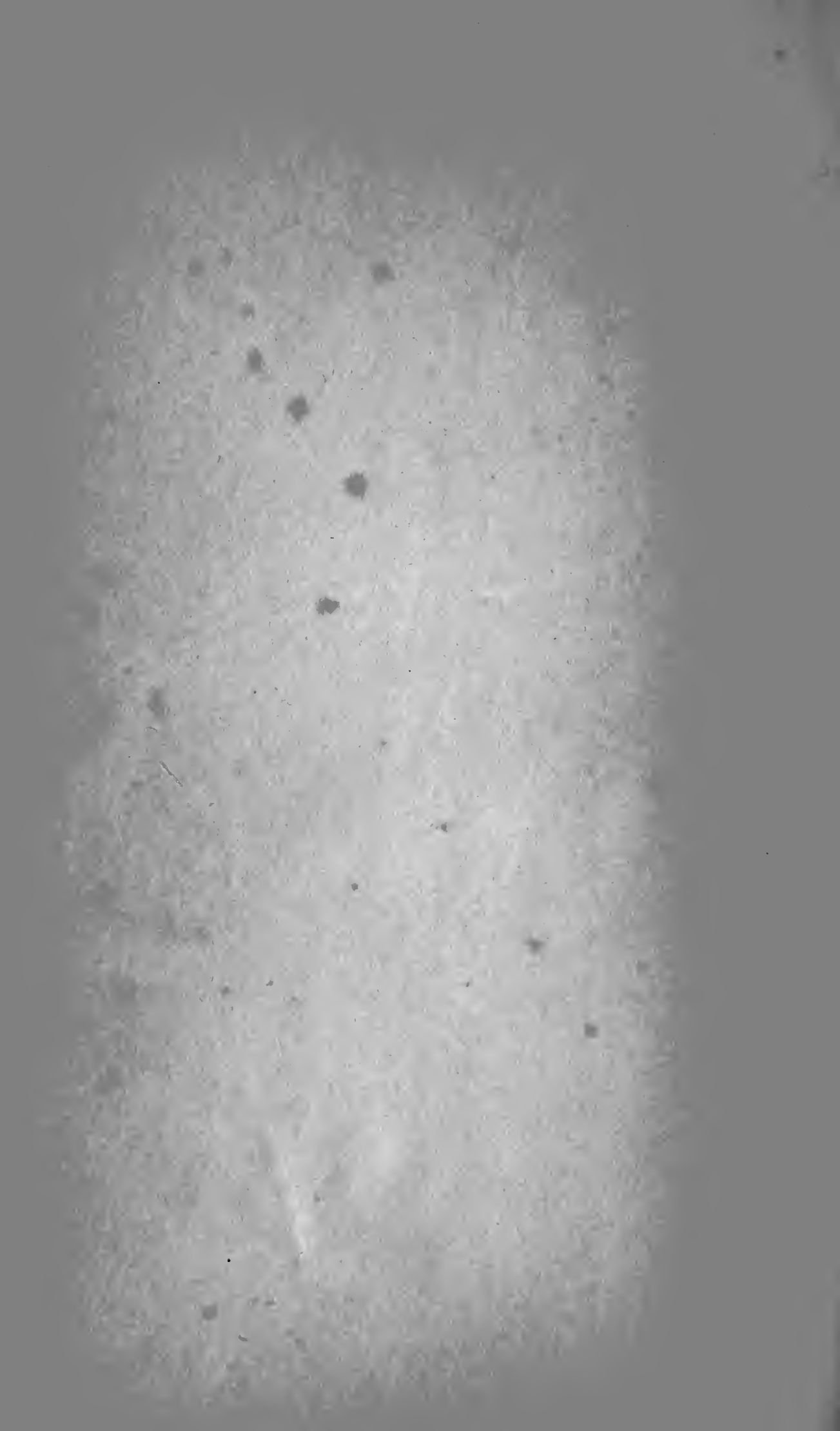
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